DE BOW'S

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

DECEMBER, 1852.

VOL. XIII., O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. I., No. 6.

ART. I.—THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

TWENTY years ago "the far west" was a fixed idea resting upon a fixed extent of territory. Missouri was then our remotest idea of it—our *ultima thule*. The progress of civilization, however, has been so rapid, that now neither California nor Oregon is looked upon as realizing the idea of "the far west." Our ideas are leaving even the eastern shores of the Pacific to find a locality beyond them for this "far west." The Sandwich Islands, as we saw in our last number, begin to lay claim to it on the principles of "manifest destiny." Australia will soon be in the "line of safe precedents." Already President Fillmore finds a "far west" on the isles of the Japanese Empire and on the shores of China, and is now fitting out a powerful expedition to go in search of it. As the objects of this expedition are attracting the attention of the whole world to the Empire, we propose to lay before our readers such information regarding it as has been permitted to Europeans.

The Empire of Japan, called by the native Japanese *Niphon*,* and by the Chinese *Yang-hou*,† is entirely insular, consisting of a cluster of 3,850 islands, lying off the coast of China, from which they are separated by the Strait of Corea, the Sea of Japan, and the Channel of Tartary. On the north of them lies the Sea of Okhotsk, and on the east and south the broad Pacific. The entire cluster, constituting the empire, consists of five large islands, and a great number of small ones, and all lying between the 30th and 50th parallels

* "Basin of the Sun."

† "Workshop of the Sun." The Chinese also call it Noo-Kooe, or "Kingdom of Slaves;" and also Je-pen or Je-poon, or "Country of the Rising Sun."—Kämpfer's *History of Japan*.

of north latitude, and between the 128th and the 151st degrees of east longitude. From this it will be seen that they lie immediately west of the United States, stretching from south to north, from the latitude of New-Orleans to that of Newfoundland. They are about 150 miles east of China.

Our knowledge of this renowned empire of the Japanese is very incomplete, but still sufficient to enable us to form a tolerable idea of its very singular inhabitants. The Dutch are the only Europeans who are allowed to visit them, and then only twice a year, and only at one port, that of Nangasaki. The Chinese are the only Asiatics who are allowed to trade with them. The system excluding Europeans has existed ever since the year 1630. The Portuguese had till then the chief trade to Japan, and had, as they stated, converted a greater part of the nation to Christianity; but being charged with a conspiracy to usurp the government, upon the plea of the Pope's supremacy, all the Portuguese and their numerous proselytes were either massacred or banished the empire. The Dutch alone were suffered to trade with them, as some say, because they declared that they were not Christians; others, that they assisted in the expulsion of the Portuguese. Others again declare that the Portuguese were expelled, and the exclusive system established, simply because the Jesuit missionaries, as in China, attempted to christianize the country. It is certain, however, that the Japanese regard the Dutch as Christians, for they use as much caution in their commerce with them as if they were really Christians.

At the season of the year when the Dutch fleet is expected, the Governor of Nangasaki places sentinels on the hills to give notice of the approach of any ships. When the fleet arrives, a boat is sent off to each vessel with an officer, and as soon as the ships come to anchor, an express is immediately dispatched to announce the arrival to the Emperor of Japan, and the Dutch are not allowed to dispose of anything until the dispatch returns. In the mean time, the particulars of every ship's cargo are taken, with the name, age, stature and office of every man on board, which are translated and printed in the Japanese language. On the return of the express, the crews are allowed to come on shore, and on landing are all mustered before a Japanese commissary. Each man, as his name is called, is required to give an account of his age, quality and office, in order to see if it agrees with the particulars given in at first by the Dutch officers. After this examination, they are sent on board again, and the sails of the ships, with all the guns, arms, ammunition and helms, are brought on shore, and the hatches sealed down by a Japanese officer; nor are they allowed to be opened, whatever the ships' crews may need, without permission from the governor, who always sends a person to see what is taken out, and to seal the hatches down again. Nor are the Dutch sailors allowed to light candles on board, or to make any noise, any more than on shore. The ships are allowed no communication with one another: nor is any officer or sailor suffered to go on shore except the persons who are appointed to carry the present of the Dutch Company to the Emperor at Jeddo.

His majesty having accepted the present, and prepared one in return for the Company, the Dutch officer is conveyed, under a strong guard, back to Nangasaki. This journey, and the transaction of their commercial affairs, usually occupy about three and a half months. The Dutch who attend the emperor on this occasion approach him on their knees, with their hands joined together and carried to their foreheads, that being the manner in which the Japanese governors and ministers always approach him.*

While the Dutch ships lie in the road, none of the Japanese are allowed to go on board to trade with the sailors; and those that carry provisions on board are not suffered to take any money for them till the permission to trade comes from court. They then present their accounts and are paid. After this the Japanese permit six persons from each vessel to come on shore and buy and sell for themselves, and stay four days, either in Disnia, a small island, or in the city of Nangasaki. When these six men return on board, six others are allowed to go on shore to traffic, and so on as long as the trading season continues; so that at no time are there more than six Dutchmen on shore. The goods are generally paid for in bullion, or in silver coins received by weight. After six weeks of free trade in this manner, there is no further communication allowed with the Dutch, who then prepare to return.†

According to the most respectable authorities, it cannot be doubted that the Dutch, at the time of the expulsion of the Jesuits and Portuguese, acquired the exclusive privilege of trading by denying their religion, and by going through the ceremony of trampling over the image of the cross. This ceremony, which was for a long time required, is now discontinued, the Japanese government considering it useless. The Jesuits first introduced Christianity into the islands in the year 1545, and made rapid progress in their work. Many of the princes and persons of high rank became converts, and a public embassy was sent from Japan with letters and valuable presents to the Roman pontiff. The Portuguese soon became very numerous in Japan; and their great success in trade and in converting the natives, soon rendered them odious, by the avarice and domineering disposition which they exhibited. The heathen priests succeeded in procuring a prohibition from the emperor against the new religion. A violent persecution commenced against the Christians, of whom 20,000 are said to have been put to death in 1590. The number of proselytes, nevertheless, continued to increase, and in 1591 and 1592, 12,000 of the natives were converted and baptized. One of the emperors with his whole court and army embraced the Christian faith, and had the Portuguese acted with only ordinary prudence and moderation, they might have triumphed; but in 1596, having superciliously treated a prince of the empire, their doom was sealed. A new persecution began, which was carried on against the Christians

* *Japan*, by T. Watts, M. D., late of the B. E. I. Company. Page 5. New-York: Cornish, Lamport & Co. 1852.

† Ibid. Page 6.

without interruption for forty years, and ended in 1638 with the entire extermination of the Christians, and the banishment of the Portuguese from the country. The Japanese, being persuaded that the conduct of the Portuguese was the legitimate consequence of their religion, forbade them ever to return. The Portuguese, indeed, richly deserved their fate; for it afterwards appeared that they had entered into a conspiracy against the emperor and government. This conspiracy was discovered and disclosed to the emperor by the Dutch, who were at that time at war with the Portuguese. This is said to have been the real cause of the exclusive privileges now enjoyed by the Dutch.*

History of Japan.—The Empire of Japan was founded about 665 years before Christ by Siunsin. From him to Sinzakin there were 61 emperors, the last of whom reigned in 1142, A. D. At this time a change took place, and a double chronology commences, including the reigns of the Dearios and Cubos. The Dearios were military officers, and at one period completely usurped the power of the emperors; but finally a general, by the name of Jeretimo, being crowned emperor, succeeded in depriving the Dearios of all military power.

Marco Polo was the first to make known to Europeans the existence of a country called by him Zipangu, since proved to be identical with Japan. In 1542, Mendez Pinto, a Portuguese, sailing in a Chinese junk from Macao to the Sikes islands, was wrecked on the Japanese coast, and thus became the first European discoverer of Japan. The Spaniards were soon afterwards wrecked on the islands also. The first appearance of the Dutch in Japan was also owing to chance. In 1600 the Dutch fitted out a squadron of five vessels for the East Indies. Four of the squadron were lost in the Straits of Magellan, but the remaining ship, steered by an Englishman, named William Adams, succeeded in reaching the harbor of Bungo, in latitude 35° 30′. Adams was fortunate enough to ingratiate himself with the Emperor of Japan, who loaded him with presents, but would not consent to his returning home. The accounts he sent to Batavia, with the prospects he held out of a commercial commerce between the two countries, induced the Dutch East India Company to dispatch a ship thither in 1609; and thus, through the intervention of an Englishman, are the Dutch indebted for their establishment at Japan. Nearly at the same time, also, the English, by means of Adams, had permission to build a factory on the island of Firando; but though they were well received, and allowed to traffic on advantageous terms, the trade was abandoned for reasons unexplained.

Physical Geography.—Our entire knowledge of Japan is derived through the Dutch and Russians. The latter have acquired considerable knowledge of the empire through their scientific explorers, Kämpfer, Thunberg, Krusenstern, Siebold, Meylan, and

* *Wonders of Nature and Art.* By the Rev. Tho. Smith. In 14 vols. Phila. 1806.

Fischer. The shores of Japan are very difficult of access to vessels, they being either so rocky, or so extremely flat, and so often enveloped in heavy and dangerous fogs, that exploring vessels cannot approach near enough to make an accurate survey of the coasts. The following table exhibits the extent of the empire:

Islands.	No. Provinces.	Sq. miles.	Chief towns.
Japan proper:			
Niphon	53	109,000	Jeddo, Miako, Osaka, Simonoseki.
Kiu-siu	4	28,300	Kagosima, Sanga, Nangasaki.
Siktokf	9	17,200	Tosa.
Iki	2	800	
Iousima	2		
Total of Japan proper,	70	155,300	
Japanese Dependencies, called the government of Matsmai:			
Jesso		62,500	Matsmai and Khakodade.
Tarakai, south part of the Kurule Islands:		47,000	
Kunachir, Iturup, Urup.		1,800	Ourbitch.
Total of Japanese Empire		266,600	

From the above table it will be seen that the area of the Japanese Empire is larger than that of both France and England put together—larger than all Germany, including Austria and Prussia, and nearly six times as large as the State of New-York.

The three principal islands, which alone have been explored by Europeans, have a very uneven surface, few plains being of any great extent, and the hills extensive and of a rocky character. Niphon, the largest and best known, contains a regular mountain chain, running N. N. E., the highest summit of which, according to Siebold, is 12,000 feet high; another summit is 8,000. These summits are covered with perpetual snow. The average height, however, is so moderate, that the lands on the mountains may be cultivated nearly to the average summits. The two summits above mentioned, the first called *Fusi*, and the second *Siro-jama*, are active volcanoes. Many other summits, too, in the island, emit either flames or smoke. Earthquakes are frequent in Niphon. In 1705 one occurred which destroyed nearly half of the city of Jeddo, and killing more than 100,000 inhabitants. Thermal and mineral springs are also numerous; so that in general the islands of Japan may be considered the seat of great volcanic movements.

The metallic riches of Japan are stated to be very great, copper being in sufficiently large quantities for extensive exportation. Iron, sulphur, lead, tin, and some gold and silver are found, the two last being under the exclusive superintendence of the government.

The rivers of Japan, though numerous, are not long. Most of them are rather torrents than rivers. The largest river is Yedogawa, in Niphon. It rises in a large lake, Oitz, and after a course of about

60 miles, empties into the harbor of Osaka. The lake Fakonee, S. W. of Jeddo, is held in superstitious reverence by the natives.*

Japan may be said to be remarkable for its volcanoes. Besides those mentioned, there is a small rocky island near Firando that has been burning and trembling for many centuries; and at a small distance from the coast is another which has thrown out lava and other combustible matter, at different intervals, for many ages. Earthquakes are of such common occurrence there that the inhabitants do not regard them. They imagine them to be caused by a huge whale creeping under the islands.†

On the coast of Japan there are two remarkable and dangerous whirlpools. One, near Simabara, is at high water even with the surface of the sea; but the tide no sooner begins to ebb than, after some violent turnings, it suddenly sinks to the depth of fifteen fathoms, swallowing up with great force the ships, boats, and whatsoever comes within its reach, dashing them to pieces against the rocks at the bottom, where they sometimes remain under water, and at others are thrown out again at several miles distance. The other whirlpool, which lies near the coast of the province of Kijnokuni, rushes with a loud boisterous noise about a small rocky island, which, by the violence of the motion, is kept in perpetual trembling. But though this has a very formidable appearance, it is esteemed less dangerous than the other; for its noise being heard at a considerable distance, it may be easily avoided.

We are inclined to discredit these stories about the two whirlpools, though they come from the pen of the *Reverend* Mr. Thomas Smith. We find them in no other author. The Russian explorers must have seen them, if seen by any one, or at least have heard of them; and yet they do not mention them.

The entire number of islands, large and small, composing the Empire of Japan, is said to be 3,850. Niphon, the largest, is about 1,600 miles long and 60 wide.

Agriculture.—All owners of land in Japan are required by law, under penalty of confiscation, to keep their property in good productive condition. The reason of this law is, that the lands may be able to pay a large land-tax to government. The result of this law has been, that the soil, though not naturally fertile, has been so much improved as to be rendered extremely productive. Few plants, except upon the hills, are found in a natural state, and the face of the country, even on the mountain sides, (which are formed into terraces, as in some parts of Italy and Persia,) is so diligently cultivated that, as Thunberg observes, "it would be difficult to find in the country a single nook of untilled land, even to the dry summits of the mountains;" and this is confirmed in all material respects by Siebold, one of the latest travelers in Japan. In the southern districts rice is raised in very large quantities, as it forms a principal article of food with the inhabitants; but wheat is little grown and held in

* *Thunberg*, vol. iv. pp. 68–90. *Siebold*, vol. i. p. 325.
† Rev. Thos. Smith, *Wonders of Nature*.

high estimation; barley, also buckwheat, a bean called *daïdson*, and another, the *soja dolichos*, (from which the well-known "soy" sauce is made,) potatoes, melons, pumpkins and cucumbers, are raised in great abundance; and the fruit-trees of the south of Europe, the orange, lemon, vine, peach and mulberry, the last of which is carefully raised for silkworms, are both plentiful and highly productive. Ginger and pepper are the chief spice plants. Cotton is cultivated in considerable quantities, and tobacco, introduced by the Jesuits, is very generally raised in the south islands. The grand object of cultivation, however, next to rice, is the tea-plant, introduced from China in the 9th century. Not only are there large tea plantations, with drying houses, &c., but every hedge on every farm consists of the tea-plant, and furnishes the drink of the farmer's family and laborers. The fine sorts demand extreme care in their cultivation. The plant thrives best on well watered hill-sides, and they are said to be manured with dried anchovies and a liquor pressed out of mustard-seed.

Among the trees of Japan, the *Broussonetia papyrifera* is cultivated for its bark, which is converted into cloth and paper; and the varnish tree, *Rhus vernix*, for its gum, used in varnishing wooden furniture; the camphor laurel, also the iron-tree, the oak, fir and cypress, are common. Timber, however, is generally scarce in Japan Proper, and it is supplied from the northern dependencies of Jesso and Soghalien. The greater part of the provinces of Japan are without wood, the very dense population having long since consumed it all.

Japan is rich in silk. Capt. Golownin, of the Russian navy, in his *Memoirs of a Captivity in Japan*, says: "Matsmai is reckoned to be one of the very poorest towns; yet we constantly saw people of all ranks, especially women, in silk dresses. On festivals even the common soldiers wore costly silk dresses. If we consider the great population of the Japanese empire, the quantity of silk must be very great, even if only rich people dressed themselves in it."

Sugar-cane is rare in Japan, and of a very poor quality.

Cattle and other Animals.—Pasturage in a country inhabited by a people eating scarcely any animal food, except fish, and so well supplied with cotton and silk that they feel no want of wool for the manufacture of cloths, must necessarily be very unimportant. Buffaloes and oxen are not numerous, and are used only for draught labor. There are but few sheep, first introduced by the Dutch. The horses are of inferior size, and only used by the nobility. There are neither mules nor asses, and hogs are found only in the neighborhood of Nangasaki. Dogs are very common, and are considered sacred animals, in consequence of the favor which they enjoyed from one of the *Mikados*, or supreme emperors; and cats are highly esteemed by the Japanese ladies; so that dogs and cats in Japan are a privileged class of animals, and fare sumptuously.

Among the wild animals may be enumerated bears, wild boars, foxes, wild dogs, deer, monkeys, hares, rats, mice, weasels; also panthers, leopards and sables. The superstitious Japanese ascribe to

foxes the power of the devil. Apes and monkeys are worshiped, and have their pagodas. Stags are sacred animals also; and they are looked upon with so great veneration and respect that no one is permitted to make an attempt upon their lives. Stags are to be seen as common in the streets of the towns of Japan as dogs in this country. No one presumes to molest them, and in case any person should accidentally hurt one of them, it would cost him a large sum, if not his life, to make atonement for the misdemeanor. Should the stag happen to die from the wound he had received, the whole street where the act was committed would be demolished, and the effects of all the inhabitants seized upon and forfeited, the money going into the public treasury.* This severity of the Japanese laws is probably owing less to any real veneration for the stag, on the part of the government, than to a desire for some pretext for extorting large sums of money from the people.

Birds are numerous, and of many varieties. They have the falcon, pelican, crane, heron, pheasant, duck, wild-goose, teal, stork, pigeon, raven, lark, and other small birds. The crow and parrot are unknown. The reptiles and insects are similar to those of America. The seas abound in fish. Fish are in Japan what meat is in Europe.

Manufactures.—The industry of the Japanese will bear to be compared with that of the Hindoos or Chinese. The artificers in copper, iron and steel have a high character, and the swords of Japan rank second only to those made in Khorassan. Telescopes, thermometers, watches and clocks of good quality, are constructed at Nangasaki; and if the descriptions of Meylan, in his work on Japan, may be credited, the Japanese possess a very high degree of mechanical ingenuity. Glass is made, but the natives are unacquainted with the art of blowing it. Printing was introduced in the 13th century, and is conducted as in China, by means of wooden blocks. Engravings also are made, but in a very clumsy manner. Silk and cotton fabrics, of good quality, are manufactured in quantities almost sufficient for the consumption of the population. Porcelain, more highly esteemed even than that of China, is formed from two peculiar kinds of earth called *kaslin petunsee*. The art of lacquering furniture with gold, silver, and various pigments, the secret of which was, till lately, almost exclusively confined to the Japanese, and hence called japanning, is practised with great success, and the specimens that have been brought from Japan exceed in excellence every other sort of European japanned wares, though only second-rate in Japan.

The Japanese manufacture paper and cordage from the bark of the mulberry and other trees. The art of building is little understood by them. Their houses are almost universally constructed of timber, covered on the outside with plaster; and the inside consists usually of two stories, each of which, when divided, is parted off into close rooms by flimsy paper partitions, adorned, or rather disfigured, with garnish and bold paintings. Such is the account of Siebold. Others describe the houses of the Japanese as plain and neat. Those

* *Japan and the Japanese:* T. Watts, p. 44.

of the better class as having halls with splendid ceilings, and staircases equally splendid.

In ship-building the Japanese are little skilled; and all progress in the art is checked by a law which prescribes the exact form in which ships shall always be built—that of the Chinese junks. Their ships are made of cedar, fir, or camphor-wood. Merchant vessels average about 70 feet in length by 20 or 24 in breadth, and carry about 100 or 150 tons. Great numbers of ships are employed in carrying on the trade with the different ports of the empire. Japanese ships are mere boats of the rudest description, and quite unfit for sea navigation. The Japanese have pilots to conduct ships in and out of port. They are also supposed to be able to foretell the weather, and are accordingly consulted by captains before sailing. In dangerous parts of the coasts beacon-fires are kept burning.*

Trade and Commerce.—The internal trade of Japan is very extensive, and the laws have for their chief object the encouragement of home industry. Every means is used to facilitate trade between the great cities of the empire. The best of roads are maintained for the land-carriage, and coasting vessels line the shores. The shops and markets of all the great cities and towns are always well supplied with all the products of the empire. Great fairs are also held, at stated periods, which are crowded by merchants and others from all parts of the empire.

Foreign commerce, as is well known, is vigorously opposed by the government. An edict, published in 1637, and still in full force, makes it a capital offence for the natives to travel in other countries; and their seamen, even when accidentally cast on foreign shores, are on their return subjected to rigorous examination, and sometimes tedious imprisonment, to purify them from the supposed pollution contracted abroad.

Capt. Golownin, of the Russian navy, who was long in captivity in Japan, says, that "the people of Japan, in general, wish to trade with foreigners, particularly with Europeans." Before the expulsion of the Portuguese the foreign trade of Japan was very extensive. Their ships not only visited all the coasts of China and all of the East India Islands, but they even went as far west as Hindostan.

The Dutch trade in Japan is very humiliating, and disgraceful to the whole Dutch nation. Capt. Golownin observes that the trade "is on such hard terms, that the Dutch in Japan more resemble prisoners than freemen who are engaged in a commercial intercourse with a friendly power."

"In every port of Japan," says Golownin, "there is a bureau or custom-house, which has the superintendence of the loading and unloading of goods, takes care that nothing is privately imported or exported, levies the duties,"† &c. The duty is paid either to the empe-

* *Siebold*, vol. i. pp. 218–20. *Golownin:* Captivity in Japan.

† The Rev. Thos. Smith, in his great work in 14 vols., published in Philadelphia in 1806, contradicts this statement. He says: "Custom-houses are not known, either in the interior of the country or on its coasts, and no customs are demanded, either on imports

ror or to a prince of the empire. Each port has a harbor-master, whose duties are nearly the same as those of the same officer in this country. They are the superintendents of the pilots.

For the advantage of the merchants and to facilitate trade, the government publishes a kind of commercial gazette, which contains an account of the prices of goods in the different parts of the empire. Bulletins are also circulated in all the provinces, from time to time, informing all of the actual condition and prospects of the coming crops of rice, cotton, corn, and other productions.

In order also to extend trade over the whole empire, says Golownin, and give the merchants more resources and facilities, the Japanese have introduced bills of exchange and promissory notes, like those of Europe and America, under the protection of the laws. In one of the southern principalities of Japan there are bank-notes which circulate as money.

The Dutch had their earliest factory on the island of Ferato, but they were removed in 1641 to Nangasaki, by the emperor's orders, at which place alone, in common with the Chinese and Coreans, they are allowed to bring their goods for sale; but the number of vessels allowed to come each year, and the quantity of each description of goods to be sold, are strictly defined; and the residents in the factory are restricted to eleven only. The Dutch are obliged to send valuable presents, which are in fact a tribute to the *sjogun;* and once in four years the superintendent of the Dutch factory is obliged to make a journey to Jeddo, carrying gifts of more than usual value, which, together with the expenses of the journey, cost him about $15,000.

The Dutch import into Japan raw silk, woolen, cotton and linen cloths of various kinds, sugar, dye-woods, seal-skins, pepper and other spices, quicksilver, tin, iron, cinnabar, glass-wares, ivory, medicines, saltpetre, alum, watches, looking-glasses, mathematical instruments, &c., &c. The Chinese supply the Japanese with silk, tea, sugar, dried fish, whale oil, porcelain, wrought and unwrought ivory, nankeen, moist sugar, ginseng-root, medical herbs, alum, and divers trifles, such as fans, tobacco pipes, &c., &c.

The exports of the Japanese are copper, varnish, lacquered goods, salted and dried fish, sea-cabbage, camphor, silks, porcelain, soja-dolichos, and all kinds of Japanese manufactures. Sea-cabbage, which is accounted almost worthless by other nations, not only gives food to millions of people in Japan, but is also an article of commerce. It is cooked in various ways, and is the chief article of food with the poor. It is also eaten by the rich, and is used also in the emperor's kitchen.

Golownin states that he saw three kinds of coins in Japan, gold, silver and copper. The latter are round, with a hole in the middle

---

or exports, from strangers or natives—an exemption which few other countries possess. But no prohibited goods can be smuggled into the country on account of the vigilance that is used to prevent it."

We cannot credit this statement; for Captain Golownin was an eye-witness of things in Japan; while Mr. Smith only wrote from report. We do not look upon Mr. Smith's great work as very reliable. It was written half a century ago, when much less was known of Japan than now.

by which they are carried on a string. "The gold and silver coins," says Golownin, "are longish, four-cornered, and thicker than an imperial. The name, value, date of the year, and name of the maker, are stamped on each." The gold coins are the

Itzib, worth	£0	8s.	9d.	sterling.
Kobang, "	1	7	4	"
Oban, "	5	2	0	"

Accounts in Japan are kept in *thails*, *mas* and *condorins*, the values of which are :

10 condorins	equal to	1 mas,
10 mas,	"	1 thail; and
1 thail,	"	75 cents of our money.

Large payments are mostly made in silver ingots of a fixed weight and value.

Mineral Wealth of Japan.—The Japanese islands are rich in minerals. Copper is very abundant. "The inhabitants," says Golownin, "cover with it the roofs and joints of some of their houses, and the fore part of their ships. About nine-tenths of all that the Dutch export from Japan is copper. Iron is not so abundant, but in sufficient quantity to supply the home demand. In several parts of the empire there are considerable gold and silver mines; but the government does not permit them all to be worked, in order that the value of the metals may not be depreciated. The Japanese use gold and silver for various purposes besides for coins. Their temples and palaces are magnificently ornamented with them. Those of distinction wear swords, having gold or silver hilts and scabbards. The rich use gold and silver pipes, and a great number of articles in common use are ornamented with gold and silver. It is said that in the principal cities there are numerous public houses with gilded roofs.

The precious metals, gold and silver, says Malte Brun, abound in the Empire of Japan. This was well known at one time to the Portuguese, and afterwards to the Dutch, who exported considerable cargoes. Gold is found almost everywhere in Japan; but in order to keep up its value by scarcity, there is a prohibition against digging beyond a determinate depth; and no mine can be opened or worked without the express permission of the emperor, who claims two-thirds of the produce, leaving the other third to the proprietor of the land. Gold is found in small quantities in the sands, but the greater part of it is extracted from copper pyrites. The purest and richest mines are at Sido in Niphon, and at Surewga. Silver was formerly more abundant in Japan than now. The Japanese regard it as rarer than gold. It is said that there are rich silver mines in the province of Bungo, and in the most northerly parts of the empire near Kattami. Copper mixed largely with gold forms the chief wealth of several provinces, and the most valuable of their exports.

Amber, sulphur, pumice-stone, agates, pearls, diamonds and other precious stones, are found in Japan. It is rich in pearls. Lead and tin abound. The Japanese (says Golownin) cast their muskets and

cannon-balls of tin, in preparation for war in time of peace. They have had no war for 200 years.

Sulphur is in vast quantities. One of the islands (says Golownin) is entirely covered with it. This island is regarded as one of the seven wonders of Japan. Marble is abundant, but stone for building is not used on account of the frequency of earthquakes. This is also the reason why they build their houses low and of such light materials.

Government and Laws.—The Japanese government is that of an hereditary and absolute monarchy. The supreme power was originally vested in an ecclesiastical emperor called *Daïrisma*,* or *Mikado*. In 1583, Joritomo, the emperor's *Sjogun*, or military commander, usurped the civil government, and since that time the *Mikado*, who is the real emperor, has been a mere puppet, in a state of dependence on his sjogun, or prime minister and military chief of the empire. All enactments, however, must be sanctioned by the emperor before they can have legal force. He alone confers honorary distinctions, and has the entire control of religion and education. He is regarded a sacred person, and is styled the Son of Heaven. Any further connection with sublunary affairs than that mentioned above, it is thought, would degrade and profane his holy character. His court is at Miako, where he lives secluded in a large palace, surrounded by numerous officers, who treat him with almost divine honors. His person is considered too sacred to be exposed to the air and the rays of the sun, and still less to the view of his subjects. He is consequently confined within his palace. His hair, nails and beard are not cleaned or cut by day-light, these operations being always performed when he is asleep. He never eats twice off the same plate, nor uses any vessel a second time, they being invariably broken to prevent them from falling into unhallowed hands. His finances are derived from the taxes collected from Miako and the surrounding territory; from certain revenues from the treasury of the sjogun, and from the fees paid on the admission to honorable dignities and offices. His income is so small, and his dependents so numerous, that he lives in splendid poverty—the mere tool of the sjogun.

The sjogun, who is, in fact, the emperor, holds his court at Jeddo, and exercises entire authority over the lives and property of the natives, controlled only by the enactments and usages of former emperors, which suffer little change. He also controls directly the government of the five great cities, Jeddo, Miako, Osaki, Sakai and Nangasaki.

Each of the provinces is governed by a prince called *Daimio* or high-named; and under each prince are governors of districts, called *Siomio*, or well-named. The *daimios* are appointed by the sjogun, to whom they are accountable, giving hostages for the proper exercise of their authority. They have the revenues of their respective provinces, with which they defray all the expenses of the province.

* *Daïrisma* means "Lord of the Dairi;" the term *daïri* being the name of the court of the *Mikado*, or emperor.

They reside usually in large towns, in castles fortified with strong gates and lofty towers. Once a year, in token of subjection, they repair to the Sjogun's court, at Jeddo, with splendid retinues, and bearing valuable presents, constituting a main portion of his yearly revenues.

The executive department of the emperor is confided to seven ministers, as follows :

Minister of internal economy and finance.
Minister of commerce and navigation.
Minister of public works.
Minister of police.
Minister of civil and criminal legislation.
Minister of war, and
Minister of religion.

The supreme judicial council, called Gorondje, is composed of five daimios, who assist the Kubo in his decisions on political offences. A senate of 15 daimios or nobles forms a subordinate court cognizant of civil and criminal cases.*

There is no country in the world in which the laws are so few and so strict, and even cruel and vindictive, as those of Japan. Did not all writers agree on this subject, we should be disposed to discredit the accounts which are given. Most crimes are punished with death, even perjury, or the smallest theft. Scarcely any distinction is made between crimes, every one being regarded as an audacious and unpardonable attempt to transgress the hallowed laws of the empire, and to violate justice. Fines are regarded by the Japanese as repugnant to reason and equity, because the rich may thereby be absolved from all punishments. Gambling is a capital offence, punishable with death. He who kills another, even though innocently, and in his own defence, dies without mercy ; but if he kill one maliciously, and not in self-defence, he not only dies, but all his kindred, father, mother, brothers, sisters, and all related to him by blood, and all his slaves, are put to death with him at the same time, for his crime alone. It is a literal carrying out of " the punishment of the sins of the father upon sons unto the third and fourth generation." The crimes for which all the family or kindred are put to death are extortion, coining, arson, murder, and many others. The estate of the whole family is also confiscated. Such severity is doubtless resorted to, more to replenish the public treasury than to satisfy their horror of crime. Favor is shown only to princes and nobles, who are sometimes banished to the barren island of *Faitsensima*, where they are kept in a half-starved condition.

The modes of punishment are the most cruel imaginable. Decapitation, ripping open the body, roasting before a slow fire, dipping in boiling oil or water, quartering the body by attaching a horse to each limb, are very ordinary punishments. Gentlemen and soldiers are allowed to be their own executioners, by ripping up their own bodies. All others must submit to the public executioner.

---

* McCulloch's Geog. Dict., Art. Japan.

Masters have the power of putting a servant to death for the slightest offence, the master being the judge. The torture is also used to extort evidence. Dealing in contraband goods is punished with death, and the punishment extends to every individual concerned in the traffic, both buyer and seller. The prisons are gloomy and horrid abodes, containing places for torture and executions. The police is extremely strict, and in the large towns each street has a chief officer, called the *ottona*, who is responsible for the maintenance of order, the punishment of delinquents, and the registration of births, marriages and deaths. Besides these, four superintendents regulate the economy of the towns, and rigorously punish, often with death, the most trifling infraction of public order or peace, information of which is obtained by an established system of *espionage*. In every village there is a place surrounded with palisades, containing in the middle an inscription, in large characters, consisting of a code of police regulations. The inhabitants in each street of a town are accountable in a body for the offences committed by any one of their number.

Revenues.—The public revenue of Japan consists of the proceeds of taxes on lands and houses. All lands are assumed to be the property of the state, and are rated according to their fertility. The taxes are very high, exceeding, it is said, sometimes one-half or even three-fourths of the produce. This is difficult to believe. Tenants who neglect the cultivation of their land are punished by ejectment. Houses are rated according to their extent of street frontage, and the amount in which the holders are mulcted is greatly increased by forced presents to the civil officers, and dues for maintaining the temples and idols. The actual amount of the emperor's revenues is unknown; but it may be inferred that the land tax, and the contributions from the daimios, or governors of provinces, who farm the taxes, is an immense sum. According to Dr. Talbot Watts, "late in the service of the Hon. B. E. I. Company," the revenues of the Japanese lords amount to 73,600,000 crowns, or about $82,000,000. The same writer declares that the emperor has vast treasures of gold and silver hoarded up in his numerous castles—that the amount is rapidly increasing, and that the emperor's revenue for only two months is sufficient to defray his enormous expenses for a whole year. It is highly probable that the wealth of the emperor is enormous, as the Japanese have had neither rebellions nor wars to exhaust their treasury for near 200 years. During this long period of profound peace wealth has immensely accumulated. Some of the lords have a yearly revenue of more than 2,000,000 of crowns.*

Japanese Army.—The standing army of the emperor is 100,000 foot and 20,000 horse, as a peace establishment. Besides these, the

* Varenius, in his Description of Japan, has given an account of the revenues of Japan for each province separately. He makes the sum total 2,834 Dutch tons of gold, which, valuing the ton at £10,000, would be upwards of £20,000,000 sterling, or $97,200,000, without reckoning the provinces and towns which depend immediately on the emperor. But these revenues are not to be considered as national, being paid in kind to the different princes.

lords are obliged to maintain, when required, a certain number of soldiers in proportion to their revenue. This enables the emperor to call into the field, at any time, an army of 368,000 foot and 38,800 horse, in addition to his regular army of 100,000 foot and 20,000 horse. Most of the lords maintain, out of a mere love of show, and to please the emperor, twice as many soldiers as they are required to support.*

The cavalry are armed with corselets, but the foot have only head-pieces. The offensive arms of the horse are short muskets, half-pikes, bows and arrows and cimeters. The foot wear two cimeters, and carry muskets, pikes, and large knives. They are divided into companies of fifty soldiers each, and commanded by a captain, lieutenant, and ten corporals. Five companies form a body, who are commanded by one officer, and every fifty companies have their colonel.

The artillery consists of only a few brass cannon and light pieces. The generals have no permanent office, being appointed in case of war by the emperor or princes. Discipline and fortifications are little understood, and their batteries consist usually of a few odd-looking walls, raised without either order or apparent object.

Religion.—The Japanese believe that they are descended from the gods, and consequently they regard Europeans as beings of a very inferior order in the scale of creation. Their religion is the grossest paganism. They are divided into numerous religious sects, each maintaining very opposite tenets; yet, notwithstanding this, they live together in great harmony and concord, difference of opinion not being considered by them as any cause for dissension. Christians would do well to imitate this. It was not for their religion that the Jesuits became offensive to them; but for their want of toleration, their desire to subject all to Christianity, whether they believed in it or not, and their haughty, grasping disposition, and their wish, finally, to overthrow the government.

The number of their deities is so great that almost every trade has its tutelary divinity, after the manner of the ancient Greeks and Romans. They believe in the existence of an eternal, omnipotent spirit, supreme in power and might. Their principal priests are appointed by the ecclesiastical emperor, and every sect has its respective temples and idols. Their temples are always built on the highest places. The priests in each are very numerous, and perform scarcely any other functions than keeping the temples clean, lighting the fires and lamps, and presenting offerings of flowers to their idols. No sermons are preached, no hymns sung. Such as please to pay their devotions are at all times welcome to approach and leave their offerings. Even strangers are not forbidden to enter the temples, and even to take up their lodgings in them at night when they cannot find lodgings elsewhere. In this our Christian land, the poor man who has no money to pay for a night's lodging, would be treated as a criminal, and dragged to a prison, if found sleeping even on the hard stone steps of a Christian church!

* Watts: *Japan and the Japanese*, p. 14.

The Japanese believe in the immortality of the soul, and in a future state of rewards and punishments. According to their traditions, the souls of the virtuous have a place assigned them immediately under heaven, while those of the wicked are doomed to wander to and fro under the canopy of the sky, in order to expiate their sins. They do not believe in the transmigration of souls. "The whole tenor of their doctrine," says the Rev. Thomas Smith, "has no other object than to render mankind virtuous in this life. Their chief and universal care is to preserve a good conscience, and to pay due obedience to the laws of their sovereign. They abstain from animal food, are loth to shed blood, and will not touch any dead body."

They believe that the souls of foxes are devils, and these are their only devils. Believing that their gods know all things, they think, therefore, that it is unnecessary to pray to them. There is no visible representation of the Almighty in any of their temples, though sometimes they keep in a box a small image of the inferior deity to whom the temple is dedicated. Tensio-Dai-Sin is the most ancient of their gods. His temple is at Isie. It is very old, and has no other ornaments than a mirror and slips of white paper hung about the walls, to denote that nothing impure can be acceptable to God, and that from his all-seeing eye nothing can be hid. All are expected to make a pilgrimage to this temple at least once in their lives. Pilgrimages are very common in Japan, in which great austerities are practised.

Nunneries have been established in Japan upwards of a thousand years. These belong to the Buddhists, whose religion was introduced from China in the 6th century. There are also *Jambos*, or mountain monks, who live a secluded and ascetic life; also blind monks, who have deprived themselves of sight, that they might not behold vice around them. Occasionally, in pursuance of vows, men entirely naked are met with, who are on a visit to the different temples. Multitudes of religious beggars, with shaved heads, are also to be seen in the streets; and singing girls, in the assumed habits of nuns, procure from the rich large sums.

The oldest form of religious worship in Japan does not at all resemble that of the Chinese or Buddhists. This is the purest sect in Japan. It teaches the doctrine of a heaven for the good and a hell for the bad; also the immortality of the soul. In every Japanese house is an oratory, in which the natives offer up, morning and evening, prayers to the supreme deity, through the mediation of the mikado, or of inferior spirits called *kami*, they believing that the supreme deity is too great to be addressed in prayer directly. The *kami* consists of 492, who were born spirits, and 2,640, who are canonized mortals. To these kami temples are erected. Large gates and triumphal arches lead to the temples, which, with the buildings of the priests, form often stately edifices. Various eatables are offered up to the kami as sacrifices, and anciently human beings were sacrificed. The priests are allowed to marry.

The doctrines of the Buddhists of Japan are divided into two classes: those of the priests, the *Esoteric;* and those of the people, the *Exoteric*. According to the first, man sprang from *nothing*, and

therefore has no evil in him originally. The soul within is God guiding our actions, and by following the bent of the soul we escape evil. The soul is immortal, and after death resides in the palace of God, if good; but if bad, it floats eternally in the void of space. When a virtuous man is needed on earth, a soul is sent from heaven to occupy here below a human body. The *Exoteric* doctrines are: that in the other world, before the great judge, *Emaoo*, stands a large mirror, in which the actions of all mankind are imaged forth. Near this mirror stand two spirits, who observe and report the deeds of every person, and a third records them in a book—the Book of Life—by which the souls of the dead will ultimately be judged, and, according to their sentences, sent to their places of rewards and punishments. *Amida*, the saving deity, is the god of paradise; and the way to ensure a journey on the *gokurak*, or road to paradise, (one only out of six to which departed spirits may be sent,) is an obedience to the five commandments, viz.: not to kill any living creature; not to lie; not to commit adultery; not to get drunk; and not to steal. One of the roads for the dead is *Tsikusyo*, or the road to the hell of animals; and hence the Buddhists of Japan believe in the transmigration of souls into animals as well as men.

There is also in Japan the sect of *Syuntoo*, which professes the morality of Confucius. It is quite separate from any of the above mentioned creeds, and has existed in Japan since A. D. 59. There, as in China, its only object is the inculcation of a virtuous life in this world, without reference to any after state of existence.

The priests of Buddha, in Japan, are called Bonzes. They are very numerous, comprising both males and females. They are under a vow of celibacy, as in other countries, and have convents for both sexes.

A few days after the commencement of the new year, is performed the ceremony of trampling on such images as represent the Cross, the Virgin Mary, and Jesus Christ. This ceremony is required by the government, in order to imprint on the minds of the people an abhorrence of Christianity, or more properly speaking, of that form of it which the Portuguese introduced; and also to discover, in this way, whether any remains of it still remain in Japan; for which reason the ceremony is chiefly performed in such places as were formerly most frequented by the Christians. At Nangasaki it continues four days, after which the images are laid by till the next year. Every native inhabitant, except the governor and his attendants, must be present at this ceremony. Captain Golownin says, that the people are not only required to trample on the cross, but also on other insignia of the Roman faith. There is a law in Japan forbidding any one hiring a servant without receiving first a certificate of his not being a Christian. When a person dies at Nangasaki, they produce witnesses to testify that the person was not a Christian at the time of his death; nay, they examine the corpse with the utmost care, in order to be convinced that there is no mark of Christianity about it, or of any punishment inflicted on that account; after which they draw up a certificate in favor of the deceased.

POPULATION OF JAPAN.—The exact population of Japan is unknown. According to the most moderate estimates it is about 50,000,000, exclusive of the inhabitants of the Japanese dependencies. The accounts of all travelers concur in assigning to Japan a prodigious population. Thunberg, to give an idea of the denseness of the population, says that the *Tokaido*, the principal of the seven great roads of Japan, is sometimes as much crowded with travelers as the streets of any European capital with passengers. The estimate of 50,000,000 would give only 184 to the square mile, calling the area of Japan 266,000 square miles.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.—The people of Japan are divided into eight classes: the princes, nobles, priests, soldiers, civil officers, merchants, artisans, and laborers. The caste system is strictly pursued, and each follows the employment of his fathers, whatever his talents may be for a different pursuit. The Japanese appear to be a mixed race of Mongolian and Malay blood. They are in general well made, active and supple, with yellow complexions, small and deeply set eyes, short and rather flat noses, broad heads, and thick black hair, which is allowed to grow only on the crown. The Japanese dress in loose flowing robes of silk or cotton, the family arms being usually worked into the back and breast of the outer robe. Over the ordinary robes is worn, on state occasions, a robe of ceremony. The males generally wear two or three robes at once; but the women often have on their persons thirty or forty robes, one over the other, and yet all so fine and thin as not to weigh, collectively, more than four or five pounds. The robes are fastened around the body by a belt, four inches broad for the men, and twelve for the women. Stockings are not worn. Their shoes are of rice straw or of rattan, and are generally very poor. The Japanese never enter their houses with their shoes on, but always leave them at the door.

The higher classes wear a sort of trousers, resembling a full plaited petticoat drawn up between the legs. They also wear one or more swords, according to their rank. The lower orders are not allowed to wear swords. Priests, physicians and youths, are exempt from shaving the head. The women wear their hair long, and arranged in the form of a turban, stuck full of pieces of highly polished tortoise shell. The Japanese ladies paint their faces red and white, stain their lips purple, and their teeth black, after marriage. Hats are only worn when it rains, but the fan is carried at all times, and by all classes. Their gait is awkward, owing partly to their clumsy shoes; but that of the women is the worst, from their so tightly bandaging their hips as to turn their feet inward. Tight shoes are not worn.

Polygamy is not practised, even by the nobles, and far more freedom is permitted to the female sex than in China. Many of the ladies are well educated, and almost all play on musical instruments. Concubines are kept in numbers, varying according to the means of the owner; but they hold a rank much inferior to that of wives. Prostitutes are found in every town, in greater numbers than in any country of Asia except Hindostan; and so little discredit is attached to their abominable profession, that they are visited by married

females, and received back without remark into respectable society.* The law allows but one wife, who is at the absolute disposal of the husband. Marriages are contracted by the parents for their children, and the young couple know nothing of what is done, and never see one another till the hour of the ceremony. This is performed in the temple by a bonze, or priest, before the altar of the god of marriage, who has the head of a dog—an emblem of mutual fidelity. The bride, standing before the altar, lights a torch by one of the lamps burning around the temple, at the same time pronouncing a form of words dictated by the priest. The bridegroom next lights his torch by that held by the bride, and the priest dismisses them with his benediction. Two oxen are sacrificed to the god, and the parties retire to their home.†

The Japanese are very tender and indulgent in the education of their children; and though they have an absolute and unlimited authority of life and death over them, yet they very seldom treat them with inhumanity. They endeavor to inspire them with a love of glory, which is their darling passion.

The Japanese merchants are said to be very remarkable for their fairness and strict honesty in all transactions.

A Japanese is certainly in some respects rather a ludicrous object —his head half shaved—the enormous covering of oiled paper in which he is wrapped up when he travels—his salutations, which consist in bending his body repeatedly almost to the earth, and the enormous fan which he constantly carries in his hand, present an extraordinary figure. The Japanese entertain a high sense of honor, and observe towards each other the most ceremonious politeness. Their courtesies and ceremonies are infinite. They have an immense number of books on *etiquette*, teaching how a draught of water should be taken, how to give and receive presents, and all the other minutiæ essential to the refined behavior of a Japanese man of fashion. Lord Chesterfield or Count D'Orsay never dreamed of half the catalogue of refined trifles contained in a Japanese book of etiquette.

A Japanese, proud of the minute cleanliness of his habits, despises the Europeans as a dirty race. He has no idea of our keenness in dispute, and even when loaded with injuries, does not utter one vehement expression; but his pride is deep, rancorous and invincible; and the poniard, which is inseparable from his person, is employed as an instrument of vengeance, when the object does not expect it, or to destroy his own life in case vengeance is impossible.

The bodies of people of rank, when they die, are burned; those of others are buried. The festival of lanterns is celebrated, as in China, to which is added the custom of visiting the groves at stated times. The manes are regaled with food and drink, and treated with songs and compliments.

Public amusements in Japan consist of dramatic entertainments, which are said not to be inferior to those of polished nations. "The great number of dancing girls and boys," says Kämpfer, "announces

* Kämpfer, vol. ii., p. 9. † Watts: *Japan*, p. 24.

the relaxation of public morals, which is also evinced by the great number of infamous houses, which are more scandalously protected there than in any other country."

The Japanese may in general be reckoned intelligent, brave, courteous, industrious, frugal and upright; but the opposite vices are not wanting.

Language.—The language of the Japanese gives no evidence of any foreign extraction. It contains few Chinese terms, and has no resemblance to the Tartar or to that of the Kurile islands. The Japanese words are not monosyllabic, like the Chinese; the conjugations and the syntax have a distinct and original character. The Japanese or Yomi language is used in poetry and in conversation. The priests of Japan write their theological books in Chinese, which is to them what Latin is to us.* The Japanese is a polysyllabic language, with an alphabet of forty-seven letters, and is written in four different sets of characters, one of which, the *katakana*, is used exclusively by the males; while another, the *kiragana*, is appropriated to the females. The Chinese character is only used by the learned.

The Chinese cannot read a Japanese book; but every well educated Japanese can read the books of China. The Japanese books are said to be excellent in mechanical execution. Their types are not movable, and they print only one side of the paper. Their schools are said to be better than those of any other Asiatic country. It is said that strangers are prohibited from learning Japanese. The language is written, like that of the Chinese, in straight lines, upwards and downwards. The Japanese study medicine and astronomy, and construct almanacs with much accuracy. The sciences are taught in their schools. They have books on medicine, astronomy, theology, botany and zoology, with engravings descriptive of plants and animals. The history of Japan has been written with great care by several learned Japanese writers.

We will conclude this paper with a brief account of the expedition now fitting out by the United States government, for the purpose of endeavoring to open a trade with Japan. This has been long in contemplation by our government. Com. Porter, as far back as 1815, addressed a letter to Mr. Monroe on the subject, and it was then intended to send out Com. Porter with a frigate and two sloops of war, but the plan was defeated. Other nations have made the attempt without success. In 1803, the Emperor Alexander of Russia endeavored to open friendly relations with Japan, but he only obtained a peremptory refusal of all intercourse, and his envoys were ordered not to return on pain of death. The Portuguese, French and English have also made ineffectual attempts to establish intercourse.

The expedition now fitting out is to consist of the following vessels: steamer Mississippi, Capt. McCluney; steam-frigate Susquehanna, Capt. Buchanan; steamer Princeton, Commander Sydney Smith Lee; sloop-of-war St. Mary's, Commander Geo. A. McGruder; sloop-of-

* Thunberg: Observationes in Linguam Japonicam.

war Plymouth, Commander John Kelly; sloop-of-war Saratoga, Commander Wm. L. Walker; brig-of-war Perry, Lieut. Fairfax; storeship Supply, Lieut. Arthur St. Clair, and several other vessels.

The Mississippi is the flag-ship, having on board Commodore Perry, commander of the fleet. The Susquehanna, Plymouth and Saratoga, are already in the Pacific, awaiting the arrival of the rest of the squadron. The St. Mary's is now on her way to Japan, having on board the Japanese sailors, and on reaching Japan will wait the arrival of the fleet.

The object of the expedition, as set forth in the letter of President Fillmore to the emperor of Japan, and in the letter of instructions from Daniel Webster to Com. Aulick, both of which have been laid before the public, is "to obtain from the emperor of Japan permission to purchase from his subjects the necessary supplies of coal, which our steamers in their outward and inward voyages to and from India and China may require." If possible, Com. Aulick is directed to negotiate and sign a treaty of amity and commerce between the United States and the Empire of Japan.

On the 30th of April, 1851, the minister of the Netherlands transmitted to our government the following note on the subject of Japan:

"It is a matter of public notoriety, that foreign vessels are excluded from Japan by the government of that empire. It was, nevertheless, determined, in 1842, that if such vessels should be cast upon the shores of Japan by storms, or come there in want of provisions, with a view of asking for such commodities, water, or wood for fuel, those articles should be granted to them on request.

"For fear, however, lest this determination, prompted as it has been by feelings of humanity, should give rise to any false interpretation, the government of Japan has solicited that of the Netherlands to inform the other powers that the abovementioned resolution does not infringe upon, or otherwise imply any modification whatever of the system of separation and exclusion, which was adopted more than two centuries ago by the Japanese government, and since the establishment of which the prohibition against allowing any foreign vessel to explore the Japanese coasts, has been constantly in force. The Dutch government has made no difficulty of complying with this request, especially as the government of Japan has no other means of making a communication of this nature; and in pursuance of instructions from the cabinet of the Hague, the legation of the Netherlands has the honor to communicate the abovementioned facts to the Hon. Secretary of State of the United States, for the information of his government."

It is estimated that a direct trade between this country and Japan would be worth to us at least $200,000,000 annually.

The objects of the present expedition to Japan are entirely peaceful, and simply to offer propositions to the Japanese which would be beneficial to both nations. The exercise of no force whatever is contemplated; though it cannot be a question that we would be quite justifiable in compelling the Japanese to deliver up all American cap-

tives that may now be in their possession. It is stated by writers that there are numerous European and American captives now in the hands of the Japanese, and that they are "exhibited in iron cages in various parts of the Japanese territory." Of the truth of such reports we cannot speak confidently; but it is certainly a matter that our government ought to inquire into. If the reports are true, the remedy is plain; and our government is able to apply it effectually.

We cannot better conclude this article than with an extract from a work which has appeared within a few weeks in England,* and has been republished in New-York, containing the fullest accounts of Japan in every particular, and a very minute sketch of the history of her European connections, from the earliest times:

"The attention of the whole civilized world is now fixed on the American expedition. This cannot be made a merely national object; its character must be essentially cosmopolitan. We rejoice to see that the subject has claimed the attention of our own mercantile classes, and that efforts are making to diffuse authentic information concerning it. We must not be outstripped in the East even by the Americans.

"It was the opinion of the illustrious Humboldt, that an opportunity for opening a liberal and honorable communication between Europe and Japan, would not occur until the two great oceans (the Atlantic and the Pacific) should be united by a canal cut across the Isthmus of Panama, when the productions of the west and northwest coasts of America, China, and Japan, would be brought more than 6,000 miles nearer Europe and the United States, and when alone any great change could be effected in the political and commercial policy of eastern Asia. 'For this neck of land,' said Humboldt, 'has been for ages the bulwark of the independence of China and Japan.'

"A very recent English writer says, 'Since, however, this opinion was expressed, the bulwark has been breached, and various circumstances have transpired to alter the features of the case, and to bring about a rapid change in the tide of commerce,' and the progress of trade. The British have established themselves on the frontiers of China, and in the heart of the Eastern Archipelago, and have compelled respect to their flag and freedom to their trade. Energy and enterprise have constructed a rail-road across the Isthmus of Panama, and the gold discoveries of California, and the colonization of Vancouver's Island, have settled a vast and industrious population on the western sea-board of the American continent, and led to the establishment of new lines of steam navigation, and an immense tide of commerce and emigration. The opening of the Nicaragua, Tehuantepec, and other practicable routes of intercommunication between different points on the Atlantic and Pacific, has been undertaken by various companies. Steam communication has been extended from India to China, and recently to our Australasian settlements, by the way of Singapore and Java. There has also been a great increase in the European and American shipping employed in the India and China trade in general commerce, and the whale-fishery on the Pacific. The Americans, particularly, have largely extended their whaling fleet, and prosecuted the fishery very successfully to the seas and coasts of Japan and her northern dependencies, to the gulfs of Tartary and Okotsk, the Sea of Kamtschatka, Behring's Straits, and the Arctic Ocean.

"'The port of San Francisco, California, is destined to become the great mart and entrepot for American commerce on the Pacific, with China, Japan, and all the maritime countries of Asia, Polynesia, Oceanica, and Australasia, which embrace an aggregate population of upwards of six hundred millions. Our own excellent port and harbor of Sidney, from proximity and central situation, having

*Japan—Geographical. Historical, Statistical, etc., by Chs. McFarlane, Esq., author of British India, Life of Wellington, etc., with illustrations. New-York: Geo. P. Putnam & Co., 10 Park Place. 1852.

now the advantages of regular steam communication, possesses even superior advantages for carrying on a most extensive and lucrative trade with the coasts and islands of Asia and the Eastern Archipelago.

"'Japan is directly opposite the American possessions on the Pacific coast, and the two great islands of Niphon and Jesso from the Strait of Sangar, through which hundreds of its whale fleet are compelled annually to pass. To land, however, on any of the shores of this empire for supplies of wood, water, or the necessaries of life, or to be forced upon them by stress of weather, subjects the unfortunate whaler to robbery and death.

"'Japan not only refuses to hold commercial intercourse with the rest of the world—a very questionable right; but she goes further; and, occupying, as she does, an enormous extent of seacoast, not only refuses to open her ports to foreign vessels in distress, but actually opens her batteries upon them when they approach within gun-shot of her shores. And when driven upon them by stress of weather, she seizes upon, imprisons, exhibits in cages, and actually murders the crews of such ill-fated vessels.

"'The world, however, is one of progress; and in the march of human events it is highly probable that the Japanese will be persuaded of the error of their present policy, and induced to pursue a more liberal course.

"'The insular geographical position of Japan, her excellent ports and harbors, dense and industrious population, her boundless productive resources and vast capabilities for commerce, the superior intelligence and refinement of her princes and nobles, together with the skill, energy, and enterprise of the Japanese people, justly entitle her to rank above every other Asiatic nation. By a judicious relaxation of her restrictive policy, all these unrivaled, natural and political advantages could be made available for conducting a very extensive and profitable trade with various countries both on the Atlantic and Pacific, without compromising either her sovereignty, national religion, or peculiar institutions.

"'This isolated and mysterious empire, which has been since 1637 hermetically sealed to all foreign intercourse and trade, except with the Chinese and Dutch, will now be compelled by force of circumstances to succumb to the progressive commercial spirit of the age, and the Japanese islands will eventually become in the East what the British islands are in the West.'"

ART. II.—THE STATES OF EUROPE—SPAIN.

HISTORY OF THE COUNTRY—EXTENT AND PHYSICAL FEATURES—MINERAL, VEGETABLE, AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS—AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE—TAXATION—REVENUE AND FINANCES—ARMY AND NAVY—LOCAL DIVISIONS—COLONIES—POPULATION, AMOUNT AND CHARACTER—RELIGION AND EDUCATION—LANGUAGE, LITERATURE AND THE FINE ARTS, ETC., ETC.

[Concluded from October No.]

TAXATION.—The taxes which are now paid by the nation, and have been for years, are very oppressive. They are divided into *rentas generales* and *rentas provinciales*. All Spain, except Biscay, pays the former; and they comprise the revenue coming from the post-office, stamp duties, customs, etc., and the royal monopolies of salt, gunpowder and tobacco. The second kind of taxes is collected only in the provinces belonging to the crown of Castile, the other provinces paying others of a different and less burdensome character. Of the different species of taxes, that called formerly the *alcabala* (already spoken of) was the most injurious and oppressive. It does not now exist in the objectionable form which it once had, having been

changed into local duties paid on bringing products into towns and villages. After the *alcabala*, the *tithe* is the tax most complained of by the people. In 1820, it amounted to 335,694,000 reals ($16,784,700;) but the clergy, to whom the tithe appertains, never at any time received all it yielded, and at present only a small portion indeed, notwithstanding the guarantees of the government. Other taxes are the *frutos civiles*, a direct tax on land, trade and manufactures; *medias annatas*, the first half year's rent of all entailed lands upon the succession of the heir; *lanzas*, a composition tax in lieu of furnishing troops; *subsidio del comercio*, a tax of about $500,000, levied on merchants; *paja y utensilio*, a tax for the support of the army; and taxes on houses, patents, lotteries, bull-fights, etc. The revenue derived from salt is obtained by assessment; that from tobacco, however, falls only upon the actual consumer. An exemption from a number of petty taxes has been obtained by Navarre and Biscay by the payment of an annual contribution amounting to about $700,000.

Revenue and Finances.—The finances of Spain are in a very disordered and almost hopeless condition, a deficit occurring every year, notwithstanding the large sums which are raised from the customs and from taxation. All the money thus raised, together with that obtained from the sale of church property, has not so far sufficed to meet the current expenses of the country, and pay the annual interest upon the national debt. This debt in 1841 had amounted to 14,160,968,047 ($703,048,402.) At present it is estimated at *twenty thousand millions* of reals, or *one thousand millions* of dollars (1,000,000,000.) In 1841 the deficit amounted to 174,421,846 reals. In 1845 it ought to have amounted, according to an official statement published that year, to only 45,112,665 reals, the expenditure of the government being reckoned at 1,250,635,343, and the revenue at 1,205,522,688 reals. Yet it reached more than double the sum at which it had been estimated. Now, how are we to account for this constant deficit in the revenue of the government? Ungewitter (*Europe, Past and Present*, pp. 81, 82,) gives the following solution, which seems upon the whole not improbable:

"Sifting the question to the bottom, the riddle is soon solved. The leaders of the Spanish revolution have been in the skill of making money quite as experienced and assiduous as the leaders of the Portuguese revolution. Thus, for instance, the Spanish minister of finances, Mr. *Mendizabal*, had been for years but a poor Jewish peddler, yet by his shrewdness he insinuated himself into the favor of the queen regent, Christiana, who appointed him minister of finances. This office furnished ample opportunities for him to fill his pockets, as well as those of his adherents and of his benefactress. He sold the estates of convents, a great deal of church property, sacred vessels and utensils; nay, even church-bells; and according to official returns for the month of June, 1835, the sum received out of the sale of 559 estates of convents, amounted to 16,693,260 reals; and according to official returns for the same month, 1840, the sum received out of the sale of 31,433 estates of convents and churches, amounted to 1,245,549,569 reals. Now it is a fact that the Spanish people have not since been released from a single item of their taxes, which number not less than ninety-four of various descriptions; but, on the contrary, they have at present to pay more taxes than ever, while the *ci-devant* poor peddler, by his industry in financial affairs, has amassed a

fortune to the amount of at least $3,000,000! If Mr. Mendizabal should be asked to give an account of his stewardship, and to restore all property illegally acquired, he would indeed be reduced to very low circumstances, and that deservedly. For he has evidently despoiled the public treasure of the Spanish nation, and to these spoliations alone does he owe his wealth. His predecessors as well as his successors in that lucrative office, have practised the same arts, and in this way acquired immense riches; while the Spanish nation has been burdened with taxes at the ratio of more than 120 reals per head."

Army and Navy.—The army of Spain is in good order; and it is prudently kept so, for it forms the support of the government. It now numbers 100,000, forming 31 regiments, and 3 battalions of foot, 18 regiments of cavalry, and about 12,600 artillerists. The soldiers are brave, and will follow a good leader faithfully; but Spain has at present but few good officers. In the wars which have of late devastated the peninsula, there were found in the army no distinguished generals, the best being merely good guerilla leaders.

The navy of Spain is reduced to almost nothing when compared with its former power. Even in 1802, it consisted of 68 ships of the line, 40 frigates, &c. In 1834, it numbered only 2 ships of the line, 4 frigates, and 18 smaller vessels; and even most of these have now become unfit for service. Cadiz is the only navy station; formerly there were three, Ferrol, Cadiz and Carthagena.

Local Divisions.—In 1833, Spain was divided into 48 departments, the names of which are the same as their capitals. Since an early period, however, the country has been divided into 17 provinces, the names of which are constantly occurring in all that is written upon Spain and its institutions. Eleven of these provinces constituted the dominions of the Crown of Castile; the other six were those of the Crown of Arragon. The eleven that belonged to Castile are the following: 1. *The Kingdom of New Castile*, near the centre of the peninsula. Between it and the Mediterranean lay, on the east, Valencia; on the south, Andalusia. Ferdinand, surnamed the Holy, took it in 1085 from the Moors. 2. *The Kingdom of Old Castile*, situated north of New Castile, and extending to the Bay of Biscay. Originally it was under the rule of the kings of Leon; but in 1016 it became a kingdom. 3. *The Kingdom of Leon*, lying between Old Castile and Portugal. It was originally the kingdom of Asturias, founded by Pelagio, but was called Leon after its enlargement. 4. *The Principality of Asturias*, situated along the Bay of Biscay, between Old Castile and Gallicia, and bordered on the south by Leon. It was founded by Pelagio. 5. *The Kingdom of Gallicia*, the extreme northwestern part of the peninsula. It was taken from the Moors at an early period, and was made, in 1060, by Ferdinand of Castile and Leon, a kingdom. 6. *The Province of Estremadura*, lying between New Castile and Portugal, and having Andalusia on its southern border. The Moors overran and conquered it in 713; but it was recovered in the 11th and the 13th centuries. 7. *The Kingdom of Seville*; 8. *The Kingdom of Cordova*; 9. *The Kingdom of Jaen*, all three forming *Andalusia*, which lies in the south of Spain, north of Granada. It was wrested from the Moors mainly during the 13th century. 10. *The Kingdom of Granada*, sometimes called *Upper Andalusia*, the

south of Spain, bordering on the Mediterranean. In 1492, it was conquered from the Moors by Ferdinand and Isabella. 11. *The Kingdom of Murcia*, situated partly on the sea, and lying between Andalusia on the west, and Valencia on the east.

The six kingdoms which belonged to Arragon are the following: 1. *The Kingdom of Arragon*, between Catalonia and the two Castiles, and bordered on the north by the Pyrenees. The marriage of the king of this province to Isabella of Castile, united all Spain into one kingdom. 2. *The Principality of Catalonia*, the northeastern extremity of Spain; noted for its commerce during the middle ages. 3. *The Kingdom of Valencia*, lying between New Castile and the Mediterranean, bordered on the south by Murcia, and on the north by Arragon and Catalonia. Taken by the Moors in 788; but recaptured in 1238, by the king of Arragon, now the best cultivated province in Spain. 4. *The Kingdom of Majorca*, or the *Balearic Islands*, in the Mediterranean, opposite Valencia. The Carthagenians first took possession of these islands; then the Romans; then the Vandals (429, A. D.;) then the Moors (798;) then King James I. of Arragon (1229–1254.) Two of them, *Majorca* (1,342 square miles, population 200,000) and *Minorca* (256 square miles, 50,000 inhabitants) are called the Balearic Islands. There are two more, *Ivica* (192 square miles, population 20,000) and *Formentara* (43 square miles, population 2,000) called the Pithyusian islands. 5. *The Kingdom of Navarre*, between Arragon and the Basque provinces, having the Pyrenees on the north. 6. *The Basque Provinces*, situated along the Bay of Biscay, and having Navarre and Old Castile on its other sides. It became connected with Old Castile, not by conquest, but by treaty (1202.)

Spanish Colonies.—These have been reduced to an area of 110,760 square miles, with a population of 4,500,000. They are, in *Africa*, the *Presidios*, four fortified towns on the northern coast of Africa, opposite Granada; the *Canary Islands*, and two islands in the Gulf of Guinea; in *America*, they are *Cuba* and *Porto Rico*; in *Asia*, the greater part of the *Philippine* islands; in *Polynesia*, the *Ladrone* islands.

Population.—The population of Spain must be determined by an estimate, as it has not of late years been done by census. In 1787 it was reported by returns then made, to be 10,268,000, and now it is conjectured with a good degree of probability to be about 12,000,000; of this number 500,000 are *Basques*, descendants of the ancient Cantabrians, resident in the *Basque* provinces and Navarre; 60,000 *Modejares* or Morescoes, resident in Granada and the Alpujairas; about 45,000 *Gitanos* or Gipseys, and the remainder Castilians or Spaniards proper. The Gipseys, unlike those of England and other European countries, reside in the towns and pursue some settled occupation. They are found throughout the peninsula, but principally upon its southeastern coasts. Of the number of the population, according to the census of 1787, 188,600 were churchmen, 61,000 of them being monks, 32,500 nuns, and 2,700 inquisitors; 480,000 were *hidalgos*, of whom about 400,000 belonged to Asturias, Biscay,

Burgos, Gallicia, and Leon; 34,000 were merchants, 40,000 manufacturers, 271,000 artisans, 907,000 peasants, 960,000 day-laborers, and 280,000 domestic male servants.

The Spaniards are a people of moderate stature, thin, but well proportioned; having dark hair, black eyes, sharp features, and sallow complexions. Their character is marked by striking features. The genuine Spaniard is proud, but affable and polite; grave, but courteous; slow and deliberate in movement, but, when roused, impetuous and rash; constitutionally and by habit, lazy, but eager and untiring in the pursuit of any favorite scheme; fearful of exertion, but capable of great endurance; improvident and hot-headed; a warm friend, but a most vindictive enemy; a pleasant companion, adventurous, romantic, generous and honorable. He has a high opinion of himself and of his country; is fond of show and ostentation; temperate in eating and drinking; bigoted and jealous, but not as much so as formerly; sentimental, but not noted for high-toned morality. In society he is, according to the accounts of travelers, highly courteous and agreeable. On this point Col. Napier (*Peninsular War*) says: "There is not upon the face of the earth a people so attractive in the friendly intercourse of society. Their majestic language, fine persons and becoming dress, their lively imagination, the inexpressible beauty of their women, and the air of romance which they throw over every action and infuse into every feeling, all combine to delude the senses and impose upon the judgment. As companions, *they are, incomparably, the most agreeable of mankind;* but danger and disappointment attend the man, who, confiding in their promises and energy, ventures upon a difficult enterprise. 'Never do to-day what you can put off till to-morrow,' is the favorite proverb in Spain, and rigidly followed." A striking, and in some respects, agreeable description this is indeed, but in the main point how sadly mournful!

The manners and customs of the inhabitants are different in different provinces. The lower classes live on poor food, rarely eating meat; but laborers on the farms fare better. The common food of the latter is bread, soup, garlic, bacon, and *garbanzos*, (Spanish beans,) together with wine and oil. The middle and higher classes have chocolate for breakfast, and eat beef, mutton, and pork, accompanied by cabbage, *garbanzoz*, onions and *chichoros*, (large peas.) A favorite dish is olla, or *cocido;* and the sausages (*chorizos*) of Castile are esteemed great delicacies out of Spain. Wine is used only in small quantities, seldom to excess. The men wear broad-brimmed hats and wide cloaks; the mantilla and the fan are universally used by the women. The wealthy are richly decked with jewels. All classes take a *siesta*, or nap, in the afternoon, during the heat of the day; in the cities, the doors and windows of the shops are closed from one to four o'clock, while their occupants enjoy their wonted siesta. Exercise is taken by nearly all the population in the evening. The theatre is not much resorted to; but evening parties (*tertulias*) are frequent in the cities and large towns. Dancing, accompanied with the castanet, is a national amusement, particularly under the forms known as the *fandango*, (not common in good society,) the *bolero*, a

lighter and more graceful dance, and the *guanacho*, the most genteel of the three. Music, especially songs accompanied by the guitar, is much admired. But *bull-fights* are the favorite amusement of all classes in Spain, though they are discountenanced by the government. Descriptions of this diversion are common; we need, therefore, give none here.

Religion.—Since the days of Ferdinand, Spain has been noted as the abode of Roman Catholicism. Every other form of religious belief has been rigidly forbidden by law; and even now, notwithstanding that the government has become a limited monarchy, and that the national assembly, the Cortes, are in fact the rulers of the country, Romanism is the religion of the state. It has been found, however, that no very serious legal obstacles are opposed at present to the propagation of Protestant principles among the inhabitants. The hold which Catholicism has upon the people is by no means so strong as it was half a century since; and among certain classes infidelity is becoming prevalent. Spain is noted as the country in which so many persons fell victims to the measures of the Inquisition, a religious tribunal established for the uprooting of heresy from the land. It has been asserted that 13,000 persons were publicly burnt for heresy by the tribunals of Castile and Arragon, between the years 1481 and 1518; and that during the same time, 191,000 suffered other punishments for the same offence; but this is, probably, an exaggeration. Certain it is, however, that the Inquisition succeeded in checking all free inquiry into matters of religion among the Spaniards, and made them slaves to the worst and the most degrading of all despotisms—a despotism that binds the soul and the conscience. The tribunal does not now exist; but attempts were made to revive it by Ferdinand VII., without success.

The Spanish clergy are now poor, and dependent upon the charities of the state. Formerly they held vast landed possessions, which amounted in 1812 to one-fourth the landed property of the kingdom, and produced them a revenue, exclusive of their tithes, etc., of about $50,000,000 annually. The salaries, or rather revenues, of the higher ecclesiastics were very large, that of the Archbishop of Toledo reaching from $300,000 to $400,000 a year. In 1830 the clergy numbered 8 archbishops, (of whom the Archbishop of Toledo is primate,) 77 bishops, 2,393 canons, 1,869 prebendaries, 16,481 curates, 4,929 vicars, 17,411 beneficiaries, 27,757 seculars in orders, 15,015 sacristans, and 3,927 servitors. In 1835 there were yet 1,940 monasteries containing 30,906 monks, and a proportional number of nunneries with 24,000 nuns. During that year, however, 884 of these cloisters were abolished, (all those that contained no more than 12 inmates;) and in the year following, the remainder shared a similar fate;—all conventual establishments and religio-military orders being suppressed, and their property confiscated by the state, to be sold and applied by it to the payment of the public debt and expenses. The sale of the estates of the cloisters abolished in 1835, yielded, according to official reports, 16,693,260 reals, ($834,661, a real being equal to *five* cents.) Since this wholesale despoliation—for despoliation it is, though, like

that committed in England by Henry VIII., it may finally result in benefit to the country, as it certainly is a death-blow to the continued rule of Catholicism—the clergy and Catholicism, the established religion, have been wholly dependent upon the state, which, according to the constitution of 1836–37, has undertaken their support; but regarding the execution of this provision, even McCulloch, a warm advocate of the confiscation, is obliged to testify that, "owing to the intestine commotions that have prevailed in the country, and its financial difficulties, this condition has not been effectively carried out; and not a few of the clergy are, at present, (1841,) but little removed from a state of indigence." It will be seen, when we come to consider the revenues and finances, how far the public debt has been discharged by the money arising from the sale of the property so rapaciously snatched from the hands of its true owners without the return of a just equivalent.

Education.—A thoroughly educated man is a rarity in Spain. The schools and educational establishments have always been under the care of the clergy, and, until its abolition, of the Inquisition. There is now in this particular a promise of improvement. In 1839 there were not, according to the assertion of a member of the Cortes, in all Spain, more than 900 schools of every description—one school to 13,333 inhabitants! The universities of Spain, particularly that of Salamanca, had once a European reputation; but the distractions produced by the late wars have deprived them of most of their revenues and many of their best teachers and professors. There are yet nominally *eight* universities, only two or three of which, however, have the right to give instruction in all branches of science, viz.: that of *Salamanca*, founded in 1222, and having, in 1845, 302 students; *Valladolid*, founded in 1346, and having, in 1841, 1,300 students; *Valencia*, founded in 1401, in 1841, having 1,600 students; *Saragossa*, founded in 1474, in 1841, having 1,100 students; *Seville*, founded in 1504, in 1845, having 800 students; *Granada*, founded in 1531, in 1845, having 810 students; *St. Jago*, founded in 1532, in 1845, having 1,030 students; and *Oviedo*, founded in 1580, in 1845, having 450 students. Other universities, those of Huesca, Alcala, Toledo, Orihuela, Cervera and Palma, have been transformed into secondary schools. In 1832 Spain still possessed 56 colleges and seminaries, containing altogether 3,810 pupils, and 774 Latin schools; but they were all, and are now, in a languishing condition. Until a system of education more thorough and more general than that now existing be adopted, it is vain to hope for any material improvement in the conduct and management of the government.

Language, Literature and the Fine Arts.*—The Cantabrian was, in all probability, the language originally spoken in Spain. The modern Basque, spoken by the Biscayans, and by the people of those districts which border on the Pyrenees, is supposed to be a corrupted form of the tongue which was predominant in the peninsula. Dur-

* For an elaborate paper upon the Literature of Spain, by the Editor, see vol. ix. of the Review.

ing the dominion of the Phœnicians, and subsequently of the Carthaginians, the Punic (the same essentially as the Hebrew) must have mingled itself in some measure, particularly along the southern sea-coast, with the language of the original natives. Subsequently, on the conquest and occupation of the country by the Romans, the Latin was introduced, and became the national tongue, except in the remoter districts. The Visigoths, who captured Spain from its last conquerors, introduced the *lingua Romana*, a language formed by the admixture of German and Latin elements; while the Moors, who drove back the Visigoths, introduced the Arabic, (akin to the Hebrew,) which soon became the general language of the country. From these elements was gradually formed a new language, which we now call *the Spanish*. Many different dialects of this composite tongue soon arose; but, at length, that of Castile predominated in polite usage, and became the classical language of the country. The basis of this language is Latin; very many of its words, and quite a number of the inflections of the latter being preserved in the Spanish. A large number of Teutonic words are embodied in the language; and also of Arabic, though there are not so many of the latter as we find in the Portuguese. The Spanish abounds in vowels and liquids; is mellifluous, sonorous, and forcible; and is admirably adapted to oratory and to poetry. Unlike the French, many of whom use and know only a *patois*, or vulgar dialect, the Castilians, even the lower classes, speak the Spanish with purity and exactness.

The rise of the literature of Spain, properly so called, may be dated about the middle of the 12th century, about which time was composed the celebrated *Cid*, more correctly, perhaps, styled *el Campeador*, a collection of ballads written in honor of Rodrigo Diaz de Vivar, and which belong to the earliest specimens of Spanish literature. It is in dramatic composition that Spanish writers have excelled. The first who was noted in this species of writing was Torres de Naharro, who lived in the early part of the 16th century. The two most celebrated writers of dramas are Lopez de Vega, (born 1562,) and Calderon, (born 1600.) The drama, however, has fallen into decay in Spain. Chivalrous romances were much written and were great favorites in the country, until the publication of *Don Quixote*, Cervantes' world-renowned satire. In epic poetry, Spain boasts only one great work, the Araucana of Ercilla, (born 1525,) and this stands not in the first rank among epics. History has been written with some success by Mariana, Herrera and De Solis. Modern writers of great distinction Spain has not; among the most prominent are Campomanes, Ustariz, Jovellanos, and Arguelles, (writers on the resources of Spain;) Moratin, (in the drama;) Yriarte, Isla, Valdez, and De la Rosa, (on miscellaneous subjects.) The literary spirit is, it is hoped, beginning to be again aroused. Periodical literature is meeting with patronage, and the best writers of the country contribute to the magazines of the day. There are some extensive public libraries in Spain; that in Madrid contains 130,000 volumes, and has, besides, many valuable manuscripts, and a rich collection of medals.

The fine arts, especially painting, once flourished in the Spanish peninsula. The works of Murillo, Ribeira, (self-styled Spagnoletto,) and Velasquez, have been diffused throughout Europe, and are greatly admired by competent judges. The royal palaces and many of the dwellings of the nobles are adorned with magnificent collections of paintings. The nobles do not seem to value these as much as they deserve. Efforts have of late years been made to revive a taste for painting in Spain, but so far without apparent success.

ART. III.—THE RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

PROGRESS AND OPERATIONS OF THE RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES—FREIGHTS, PASSENGERS, RESULTS, INFLUENCES ON LANDS, ON CITIES—CONNECTION OF THE SOUTH WITH THE WEST—THE ILLINOIS CENTRAL RAIL-ROAD—PROSPECTS OF THE FUTURE, ETC.

In every part of the South and Southwest we have been emulating the example of our thrifty neighbors of the North, and are beginning to show a degree of enterprise and spirit, at least in the matter of rail-roads, not to be shamed in the comparison with their own. New-Orleans and Mobile, Savannah, Charleston and Richmond and Baltimore, are projecting and carrying out their great systems of public works, rivaling in every respect those of Boston and New-York. The occasion is a fit one for some reflections upon the rail-road system of our country, which may be of much use in aiding our own defective experiences at home.

The rail-road system of the United States is now being gradually developed towards completion by the annual filling up of gaps in connections which, perfected, present a mighty network of rails that put every section of the Union in familiar communication. It is remarkable that private enterprise, called forth, in order to provide for some local want, has, in the absence of any grand national design, gradually developed a comprehensive system which the most careful foresight of government would scarcely have carried out so successfully. It is remarkable, that while every state project has ended in ruin, individual enterprise has supplied the desideratum. The formation of one line of rail-road in any given direction prepares the way for its extension beyond the limits first proposed, and indeed soon renders the extension a matter of social necessity. Through the working of such a *piece-meal* system, it undoubtedly happens that lines are formed which do not fulfil, in the highest degree, the full and general benefits of more comprehensive plans; the best route, in a general view, between the most important points of the country, is not likely to be thus adopted; but by thus connecting local wants, and meeting the demands of local interests, works which in the end are brought to form parts of a comprehensive whole are sooner undertaken, and the country thus gains, in point of time, to a degree which will for many years fully compensate for any diminished amount of convenience.

In the United States, rail-roads in all sections, subservient to all interests, commercial, mining, manufacturing, agricultural and trading, have been multiplied to the number of 337, of an average length of 34 miles. Of these, 200 rail-roads have been built in the last eight years; each new one has necessarily compelled new connections, until the whole form eight routes of communication across the continent, east and west, and north and south; and the connections which complete the rails between New-Orleans and Augusta, Maine, via New-York and Boston, are being rapidly supplied. We may briefly sketch the roads on one of these great routes, say Augusta to Mobile:

Name of Road.	Points of Connection.	Miles.	Fare.
Kennebec & Portland	Augusta to Portland	60	$1 50
Boston & Maine	Portland to Boston	111	2 00
Boston & Worcester	Boston to Worcester	45	1 15
Western	Worcester to Springfield	54	1 50
Springfield & New-Haven	Springfield to New-Haven	62	1 75
New-York & New-Haven	New-Haven to New-York	76	1 50
New-York & Philadelphia	New-York to Philadelphia	87	3 00
Philadelphia & Baltimore	Philadelphia to Baltimore	98	3 10
Washington Branch	Baltimore to Washington	40	1 80
Richmond & Fredericksburg	Washington to Richmond	130	5 50
Richmond & Petersburgh	Richmond to Petersburg	11	1 00
Petersburgh	Petersburg to Weldon	43	3 00
Wilmington & Weldon	Weldon to Wilmington	134	5 00
Wilmington & Manchester	Wilmington to Manchester	168	6 00
Camden Branch	Manchester to Brownsville	37	1 75
South Carolina	Brownsville to Augusta	75	2 00
Lagrange	Atlanta to West Point	87	3 50
Montgomery & West Point	West Point to Montgomery	88	4 00

This chain of 1,406 miles is formed by eighteen entirely distinct roads, the connection of each of which is based only upon mutual interest. The charge on the whole route is $49, or about $3\frac{1}{2}$ cts. per mile, average—the charge being much higher per mile upon the southern than upon the northern roads, a fact which it is well to bear in mind when we come to consider the comparative influence of rail-roads north and south. The whole number of miles of rail-road in operation in 1852 is 11,565, and the cost $335,150,848, which is an average of $29,000 per mile. The cost in the New-England states is much higher per mile than either in the southern or the western. The following table gives the length and cost in each state:

RECAPITULATION.

States	No. of Rail-ways.	Miles in operation including branches.	Miles in course of construction.	Cost.
Maine	10	283	175	$8,191,693
New-Hampshire	16	463	76	14,144,755
Vermont	9	369	167	13,116,553
Massachusetts	37	1,153	67	51,884,572
Rhode Island	1	50	—	2,614,484
Connecticut	13	570	64	18,198,599
New-York	44	1,946	946	67,686,155
New-Jersey	10	290	40	7,445,000
Pennsylvania	51	1,323	535	49,662,918
Delaware	1	16	—	600,000
Maryland	3	355	172	14,220,503
Virginia	16	485	735	8,930,431
North Carolina	3	249	223	4,100,000
South Carolina	7	383	403	8,703,678
Georgia	13	804	181	15,100,080

	No. of rail-ways	Miles in operation including branches	Miles in course of construction	Cost
Florida	2	54	—	$250,000
Alabama	7	135	955	1,936,208
Mississippi	4	100	518	1,770,000
Louisiana	7	117	25	1,131,000
Texas	1	—	72	—
Tennessee	7	134	558	2,800,000
Kentucky	6	93	446	1,751,226
Ohio	26	890	1,481	17,066,661
Michigan	4	474	—	8,656,340
Indiana	20	538	1,117	9,690,000
Illinois	14	271	1,606	5,100,000
Missouri	2	—	249	—
Iowa	1	—	180	—
Wisconsin	2	20	236	400,000
Total	337	11,565	11,228	$335,150,848

The press of Europe from time to time expresses a well-founded surprise at the great and rapid progress which rail-roads present in the United States. In 1846–47 an immense revulsion overtook every quarter of the British Islands, in consequence of the vast sums of money centered upon rail-road speculation. But the whole amount of money expended on these works from 1840 to 1850 was £250,000,000 in ten years, a sum which seems to have exhausted the floating means of a country whose boasted wealth is superior to that of any other nation. In the United States in the same time $350,000,000 were expended in rail-roads, without producing any apparent effect upon the money market. This sum was one-fourth the English expenditure, but from the supposed comparative wealth of the two countries its apparent influence upon the floating capital should have been as marked, if other circumstances were the same. So far from this, however, the value of rail-road shares and securities has continued to improve. In fact, the increasing supply and the influence of the rail-roads seem to be to place more money in the market than is absorbed in their construction. The great distinction between American and English roads exists in the abundance of land in the United States, and in the number of emigrants who follow the streams where there are no rail-roads, but the latter where they exist. The cost of rail-roads in the United States is so low as to bear a very small proportion to the wealth developed through their means. If we compare an English agricultural road with a United States agricultural road, we have results nearly thus:

	Population of district.	Length of roads, miles.	Cost.	Cost per mile.	Receipts for Sept., 1851.
Southern Michigan	169,200	245	$4,675,000	20,000	$113,215
Eastern Counties	1,450,270	322	61,500,000	200,000	300,025

Thus the English road, commanding nine times the population, costs ten times as much per mile, and receives but little more than double the income of the American road. The receipts of the English road are $250 per mile per week, and of the American road $114 per mile per week. Why does this United States road give so vast an income in proportion to population and cost as compared with the English road? The reason is to be discovered probably in

the moving character of the people, and in the fact that every foot of ground passed over by the American road yields almost without labor an addition to the floating capital of the country, while the English road runs through an old country where the people had fully drawn out the resources of the land before rail-roads were invented, and where (so to speak) sedentary habits have prevailed for a thousand years.

The influence of a rail-road, in promoting travel and stimulating traffic along their lines, is most remarkable. It has frequently been the case that rail-roads have been opposed in certain districts, on the plea that there is little or no travel to support it; and when the great success of any particular work is pointed out, the reply is, that "they are more busy or traveling districts." The great fact is uniformly overlooked that it is facility of communication which causes travel. A people who live on the seaboard are seamen to a greater or less extent, not that they are naturally so, but the facility of navigation prompts the employment. When, therefore, a district is not remarkable for the locomotion of its people, it is because the means of locomotion are scarce or dear. Wherever the means of travel have been introduced, passengers and freight have multiplied wonderfully, following the universal law of increase of traffic, when obstacles, natural or legal, are removed. The great barrier between consumer and producer is the cost of transportation, and this is made up of time and labor employed on it; where both these items are reduced, the amount of the products of industry which the producers can enjoy is increased in the same proportion, because those who step in between them get less.

The following table shows the number of passengers, and the average distances traveled by each, on the oldest roads of Massachusetts, for the years 1846 and 1851:

			1846.			1851.				
	Opened.	Length, miles.	No. Passengers	No. carried one mile.	Average distance.	No. Passengers carried.	No. carried one mile.	Av. dist. each.	Av. div. for 5 years.	
Lowell	1835	26	400,856	8,411,457	20.90	569,284	8,968,904	15.74	8	pr ct.
Worcester	1835	45	470,319	12,766,522	27.14	1,100,730	20,236,684	18.38	7¼	"
Fitchburg	1845	51	327,034	5,981,872	18.29	1,261,159	14,204,109	11.26	8½	"
Connecticut Riv.	1846	50	185,190	1,369,800	7.39	263,706	3,676,863	13.94		
Old Colony	1845	37	213,144	3,459,291	16.22	630,589	9,161,782	14.52	3	"
Providence	1835	41	476,615	7,453,177	15.63	611,020	9,261,282	15.15	6¼	"
B. and Maine	1843	74	460,426	9,474,241	20.57	1,449,631	23,533,081	16.22	7	
Exeter	1841	55	786,756	12,574,386	15.98	993,256	10,654,945	10.72	8	
Nashua	1838	15	192,272	2,678,513	13.93	223,888	2,686,656	12.		9½
Western	1841	156	905,664	14,273,181	53.72	479,905	22,582,614	47.05	8	
Total			3,778,296	78,443,440	20.76	7,583,648	124,946,900	16.47		
18 others			284,638	2,807,369	10.	1,927,210	27,969,283			

In this table it will be observed that the Connecticut valley road is the only one on which the distance per passenger was not shortened. The reason is that the road itself was only 37 miles long in 1846. The 18 unentered roads were not sufficiently complete at the first period to afford a comparison.

Inasmuch as time is the chief object in transporting food, a rail-road traveling at the rate of 15 miles per hour, which is the usual rate for

freight trains, will in three hours bring produce 45 miles, while a wagon will in the same time have come but 15 miles. Thus the radius of the circle of country which supplies the city is increased three times, but the quantity of land is increased as the square of the radius, that is to say, nine times; an increased speed would easily raise this to 16 times or more. By this means the value of land for agricultural purposes becomes equalized over a much larger surface, while that in the immediate vicinity modifies the rents which would otherwise become enormous at the business centre, and the city population spreads over a large surface. In a commercial city the profits of its commerce and the attending local mechanical arts, must supply its citizens with rent, food and fuel. These aggregate profits are held in check by the competition of rival cities, and the distributive net profits must depend in some measure upon the terms on which the three necessaries mentioned can be procured. In relation to dwellings, it is of importance that they should be within a convenient distance of the places of business, and the convenience of the distance depends upon the time and money consumed in passing from one to the other. The business portion of the city is necessarily crowded within a small space, because mercantile economy of time requires that all the places to which merchants and dealers are called many times each day in the course of their business, should be readily accessible. The exchange, the custom-house, the banks, brokers, shipping, warehouses and other dealers, all require to be within reach, and the country merchants, making up a stock of assorted goods, cannot spend much time in traveling from one source of supply to another. Each and all desire to get through as much business as possible in a day. Therefore time and distance must be economized, and most merchants find it cheaper to pay high rent within the busiest circle, than a lower one at a locality more remote. Where the means of travel between those localities and dwellings are few and costly, the utmost economy of room is practised. Boston, in Massachusetts, enjoys a greater degree of rail-road accommodation than most cities, and its statistics of population indicate their influence in the manner we have pointed out. The state census for the year 1850, gives the population of Boston, and of the seven towns which surround it, within a circle of five miles. The following table shows the comparative increase of the city and those surrounding towns:

	1810.	Increase per cent.	1820.	Per cent.	1830.	Per cent.	1840.	Per cent.	1850.	Per cent.
Boston	33,250	35	43,296	28	61,392	42	93,383	52	138,788	65
7 towns, 5 miles,	15,259	35	18,647	25	25,990	35	37,612	45	68,008	81
16 " 10 "	19,723	30	33,700	68	30,622		40,483	30	54,880	28

In the decade ending with 1840 Boston showed a great increase, and it is remarkable that the relative increase of Boston and the surrounding towns was the same in that period; but in the decade ending with 1850, the pressure upon Boston, and the enhanced facilities for extending dwellings more remote from business localities, and yet accessible in the same time, have produced the vast increase of 81 per cent. in the adjoining towns, which have for the first time exceeded

the proportionate increase of Boston, great as that has been. It will be observed that the radius round Boston, within which line the population of the state is situated, is constantly contracting.

The effect of rail-roads is eminently to facilitate this contraction within certain distances, and they are the average which goods and passengers travel upon rail-roads. It is to be regretted that more particular returns are not made of the rail-road traffic in all sections of the country, with the view to ascertain the immense changes which are being wrought upon values and property through their operations. The returns of the Massachusetts roads are the most perfect, and the results drawn from the movement of passengers and goods show not only that the distances which they average are very much smaller than is generally supposed, but are constantly decreasing. Thus, if we take the Massachusetts rail-roads in the aggregate, we find a great and rapid increase in the number of passengers and tons exported, with a continually decreasing average distance, as follows :

TONS OF MERCHANDISE AND NUMBER OF PASSENGERS TRANSPORTED ON THE MASSACHUSETTS RAIL-ROADS, WITH THE NUMBER OF MILES TRAVELED BY EACH.

	Tons carried	Tons carried one mile	Average miles	Passengers carried	No. carried one mile	Average miles per passenger
1846	1,334,944	40,634,074	30.43	4,062,934	84,250,809	20.73
1847	1,769,332	66,187,617	37.46	5,556,576	103,037,484	18.32
1848	1,958,331	67,021,613	34.22	7,336,251	126,371,239	17.22
1849	2,167,754	70,848,225	32.68	8,788,589	144,305,281	16.43
1850	2,219,050	72,523,280	32.68	8,856,656	147,888,327	16.69
1851	2,260,366	70,205,310	31.05	9,510,858	152,916,183	16.07

While the number of passengers entered upon the books has considerably more than doubled, the average distance to which they are transported has diminished one-fifth—viz. : from 20 to 16 miles each. In relation to freight, the same general feature is apparent, but in a less marked degree. The result is varied by the extraordinary circumstances of the year 1847, in which an unusual quantity of farm produce sought the seaboards, by every possible channel, regardless of expense, on its way to Europe, where exorbitant prices remunerated every means of transport. The large proportion of this produce which came from the west over the Western Rail-road, raised the average distance to which freight was transported in that year seven per cent. Since then the average is, like that of passengers, diminishing. It would seem to be the case that the proportion of way-passengers on the Western road is greater than that of way-freights, although both increase in a manner to show the proportion to which business aggregates along the line of a road in comparison with its through business. The following shows the number of miles run, and through and way-passengers transported over the road during the years 1842 and 1851:

	1842.	1852.
Miles	397.295	774,609
Through-passengers	18,570	33,971
Way-passengers	171,806	45,933

Thus, on the other rail-roads of Massachusetts of completed lengths, the distance traveled by each passenger diminished from

20.76 to 16.47 miles, or four miles each. On the Western road the average distance of all passengers is nearly one-third its length. On the others it is less than two per cent. of the aggregate length. This arises from the fact that a larger portion of the western business is through travel; but it seems on that road, as on all, that the local business built up on the line of the road is rapidly reducing the proportion. The goods carried on the Western have diminished ten miles in average distance since 1847; although the whole quantity carried is the same in 1851 as in 1847. These are very remarkable results, and indicate very clearly the rapidity with which cheap and prompt intercourse develops local business—the whole showing a tendency to concentrate at the commercial emporium. Thus a long road on its first construction carries passengers through between its most distant points, but gradually lateral connections are formed—tributary channels find their way from all sections on either side—depots spring up, and, more especially in a new country, constantly increasing amount of freight bears a larger ratio to the whole sum, even although that portion of the business also increases in magnitude. The expenses of the work in the same manner diminish in proportion to its revenue; because, through the accessions of way-travel, the vehicles become more completely loaded—the engines are taxed to an extent nearer their capacities without much increase in expense. The road-bed becoming more settled and firm, requires annually less outlay to rectify those derangements which at first occur by reason of the unequal manner in which the embankments solidify.

The cost of the repairs of the permanent way gradually diminishes for the first few years, until, through the dilapidation of rails by wear, they require to be renewed. The rolling stock probably undergoes each year as much repair as keeps it as good as new, and this one year with another will not much vary. The expenses of a long road are also in proportion much less than a short one, because the same stock and agents which are on duty to run 150 miles, may run double the distances with very little increase of expense, and the increased distance brings in, by way travel, a larger addition to the revenue. Where the number of trains and engines or their speed is increased, a direct addition is made to the expense, and it becomes a matter of nice calculation in a management to decide how many trains shall run on a given track, and at what rates to produce the greatest net profit. Too few trains will not accommodate the public, and too many will damage profits. The gross profits of a company are made up from an aggregate of small profits, and therefore, by judiciously diminishing the profit derived from each single passenger, the total profits from the aggregate traffic may be enhanced.

Under these circumstances have the New-England states illustrated the fact that rail-roads and communities react upon each other with continually increasing benefits. The capital invested in these works has paid large dividends. The property of the state has increased from $299,878,329 in 1840, to $597,936,995 in 1850. The population of the state is, as compared with the number of passengers carried in the cars, as follows:

	Population	Passengers	One citizen to passengers	Passage money
1846	826,481	4,062,934	5	$2,018,163
1851	1,060,200	9,510,858	9¼	3,525,188

Thus, the proportion of travel to population has doubled in five years, and the amount paid for fares has increased 75 per cent.

If this has been the effect in an old, settled country, one which has a greater number of miles of rail-road to population than any other district of the Union, how much broader is the field of operation in those western and southern states where the value of the most fertile land in the world depends on the facilities with which it can be made available in the thickly settled districts. We have seen, in the case of the Michigan road above mentioned, as compared with an English road, that the monthly receipts do not depend upon the actual number of the population through which the road runs. It is undoubtedly the case, that in a newly-settled country the coarse products would find cheaper transport by water carriage; but experience has settled favorably the question in relation to the ability of rail-roads to carry freight profitably in almost any section, and also, that the manufactories which spring up on every available site along the route, supply certainly increasing quantities of more profitable freight to the road. Sites for saw-mills, grist-mills, tanneries, factories, mines, forges, and every description of natural material and facility for manufacturing purposes, are laid open by the operation of a rail-road, and they all furnish it freight.

The cities of New-York and New-Orleans are soon to be connected by a continuous line of rails through new and sparsely settled countries. During the present winter the connection between New-York and Chicago, 961 miles, will be complete, bringing the two cities within 42 hours of each other; and it may be well here to sketch the leading links in this great chain. From the moment De Witt Clinton's plan of connecting the Erie lake with tide-water was perfected, a strong desire seized the people of all sections of the American continent to prosecute similar works. The "great fact" had been apparent, that natural difficulties of any magnitude might be overcome by the science of the engineer. Hence a universal desire to put that science in requisition. The most ready means that presented themselves were government aid, and all the western states, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio and New-York projected vast schemes of improvements which were to be completed with money borrowed on state credit. Charters on the most liberal scale were granted to almost all applicants, and immense works were undertaken. The financial storm, however, overtook them, and bankrupt states had no recourse but to abandon the half-completed works to their fate. Among these works, perhaps the most important was the Erie Rail-road, stretching 469 miles through the lower tier of counties to Lake Erie. In aid of this the state subscribed $3,000,000, and private individuals $1,500,000. This money was expended, and fifty-four miles of the road only completed, although more or less work was done along the whole line. The company were then unable to pay the interest on the state debt, and total ruin seemed to have over

taken it. At about the time that this project was started, Michigan projected a system of internal improvements, embracing 537 miles of rail-road, 231 miles of canal and 321 miles of river navigation. Of these rail-roads, two were to run parallel to each other across her noble peninsula, connecting Lake Erie with Lake Michigan. The most northerly of these was called the Central Rail-road, and was destined to connect Detroit with St. Joseph's. The other was called the Southern, and was to run from Monroe to Lake Michigan. For the construction of these works mainly, the state issued what is called the $5,000,000 loan to the Bank of the United States, which paid the first instalment and failed, leaving the state bankrupt, with its two roads partly built.

The Erie Rail-road struggled for years under mismanagement, with varying fortunes, and finally came to a dead stand in 1844, when there were fifty miles only in operation, which had cost $3,000,000, loaned by the state, $1,498,593 subscribed by stockholders, and $597,072 of debt—making $5,095,665 for 50 miles of road, which yielded a revenue of $122,768 in that year. A new organization of the company was then made, with Horatio Allen, Esq., as president. This board applied to the city for aid, which was declined; books were then opened for private subscription, without success. The number of shares of stock outstanding was then 15,845, and the board called in $5 per share, under penalty of forfeiture, and 4,290 shares were forfeited. Such was the state of affairs, sufficiently discouraging it will be readily admitted. Soon after, a new organization took place, Benjamin Loder, Esq., president. This direction came in like a northwester, and the road immediately began to stretch its length. The state waived its claim for $3,000,000 wasted upon the route. The old stock was cut down 50 per cent., making $3,736,400 surrendered in favor of subscribers to new stock. The result was, its rapid progress to completion, from New-York to Dunkirk, in 1851. In 1852 its position is, as compared with 1842, as follows:

	Miles of track.	Cost.	Income.
1844	50	$5,095,655	$122,768
1852	550	19,000,000	3,500,000

While this matter was progressing in New-York, matters were ripening in Michigan and in Indiana. These states, as we have said, failed. It had possession, however, of the Central road, 146 miles in length, and which had cost $2,238,289, and the Southern road, 68 miles in length, which had cost $1,125,590; cost of both roads $3,363,880; and the state had outstanding its bonds for $5,943,324, which it could not pay. In these circumstances, at the suggestion of Mr. Charles Butler, a bill was passed, the Butler Act, providing for the sale of the roads to private companies in exchange for state bonds. In accordance with this law the Central road was sold to a Boston company for $2,000,000; and another act authorized the sale of the Southern road for $500,000. The company which made the latter purchase did not progress much; they were constrained in 1849

to sell out their rights to new parties, under whose direction the road approached the Indiana state line. The company entered into an arrangement with the Northern Indiana road, which prolongs the Michigan Southern to Laporte, by which these two companies in effect became one, and they jointly leased, from the Buffalo and Mississippi Rail-road corporation, the route from Laporte to the Illinois state line, whence the line is completed to Chicago under the Illinois general rail-road law. This whole line, 246 miles, from Lake Erie to Chicago, was opened July 1, 1852, having cost, up to that time, as above stated, $5,000,000, say $20,000 per mile, in running order. This road was, in some portion of its progress, built for $1,700 per mile, little more expense being necessary than to lay the rails on the rich and fine soil.

The prolongation of this road through Illinois towards New-Orleans to Cairo, is at once the most gigantic undertaking and the most remarkable example of individual enterprise and skill. The Illinois Central Rail-road was one of the works projected by the legislature of that state during its season of "day dreaming," when a state with about 40,000 small farmers for all its occupants authorized the contraction of $12,000,000 debt for the construction of public works through lands which hardly any then living might hope to see settled. The Central road was to run from the confluence of the Ohio with the Mississippi, where the city of Cairo is located, northerly to the southern termination of the Illinois Canal, thence northeasterly to Chicago, and northerly to Galena, on the Mississippi River. On this work $1,100,000 borrowed money was expended, and it was abandoned with the failure of the state. The matter so remained until 1850, when Congress passed an act granting to Illinois, in aid of the construction of this work,—1st. 200 feet wide, throughout its whole length, for right of way. 2d. The right to take all the necessary materials for its structure. 3d. Every alternate section of land designated by even numbers, for six sections in width, on each side of said road, and in case the lands are already occupied, equivalent lots elsewhere may be taken. These lands not to be sold until 50 miles of road are completed.

The subsequent survey and location of the road determined its length at 670 miles, and the quantity of land thus donated at 2,672,800. Certain far-seeing capitalists, basing their views upon the known effect of rail-ways in evolving, so to speak, from the soil far more than the cost of the road itself, immediately proposed to the State of Illinois to take the grant of lands off the hands of the state, and put the work in operation, with a single track, in all respects equal to the Boston and Albany road, by July, 1854. Pursuant to this proposition, the state (Feb. 1851) incorporated Robert Schuyler, Morris Ketchum, Jonathan Sturgis and others, under the name of the "Illinois Central Rail-road," with a capital of $1,000,000, endowing them with a *perpetual* charter, and investing them with all necessary rights and privileges to build the roads, and with the lands and rights granted to the state by the United States, by the act of Sept., 1850; upon the deposit of $200,000, say 20 per cent. of the capital, the governor

to deliver to the company a deed in fee-simple of all the lands granted by the United States, and also all the remains of the old road on which the state had expended its $1,100,000. This property to be placed in the hands of Morris Ketchum, Esq., and two others, as trustees, to secure bonds issued by the company and countersigned by the trustees, bearing not higher than 7 per cent. interest per annum, payable semi-annually, and redeemable in 1875. When 50 miles of the road are in operation, the trustees to proceed to sell the lands, and redeem or purchase the bonds with the proceeds; the state to receive from the company annually 7 per cent. on the gross income of the road forever in lieu of taxes. It will be observed that this is a most extraordinary charter, the company standing in the light of a contractor with the state, to build the road on certain conditions, which being fulfilled, the state has scarcely any further control over the company, the United States being the only arbitrator between them; and on the 22d of March, 1851, the company, through its president, Robert Schuyler, Esq., accepted the charter. On the 24th of March, the governor of Illinois executed the deed of lands and property in fee to the company. On the same day the company executed the deed of trust to Morris Ketchum, Esq., of New-York, and two others, of all the property contained in the deed, to secure the 7 per cent. bonds to be issued by the company, viz., one-fourth of the lands to aid in making good any possible deficit in the interest fund, and the balance to redeem the principal.

The execution of this deed of trust completed the organization of the company. They then organize an engineer corps for the location of the route and the survey and occupation of the lands. It will be observed that the grant was equal to 3,840 acres for each mile of road. The main road runs 117 miles directly from Cairo; thence travels through a most magnificent country on the east to Chicago, on the west to Galena; thus forming almost two roads, running longitudinally through the state—making in all 670 miles of road, which would give 2,572,800 acres, apportioned as follows:

	Acres.	Value.
To secure construction, 7 per cent. bonds	2,000,000	$21,400,000
" constitute part of interest fund	250,000	2,700,000
" " a contingent fund	322,800	3,400,000
Total acres,	2,572,800	$27,500,000

The interest on the construction bonds depends upon the capital of the company, the income of the road and the sales of the land. The bondholder is secured not only by all these lands, but also by the expenditure of his own money for their improvement; that is to say, he holds the lands and the road too, until he is paid.

Thus, if the road costs the same as the Michigan Southern, say $20,000 per mile, the amount will be $13,400,000. If this money is raised upon the bonds, the landholder will have to secure his principal 670 miles of rail-road in operation, running through the most desirable mining, manufacturing and agricultural country in the world, and forming the connecting link between New-Orleans and New-York, the two great commercial centres of the Union. *Besides this*

road he will hold 2,000,000 acres of the land along its route, the value of which may be estimated from the fact that land which would not sell at the government price of $1.25 per acre, has within a few weeks sold at $7 per acre in anticipation of the influence of the road. At this rate the lands are worth $14,000,000 now, but at the same rate of progression for *all qualities* they are worth $30,000,000. This land with the road itself forms a *perfect security*. There can be none better. The interest of the bonds does not depend for its payment upon either the cash capital of the company or the income of a road which will not be second to any in the country in profit, but it has a separate quantity of land appropriated to meet it, and is beyond contingency. Of these bonds $5,000,000 have been negotiated in London, and 70,000 tons of rails for the work were purchased, half cash and half bonds. This iron has since risen $15.00 per ton in value, which, if the company were to sell, would give them now a profit of over $1,000,000. The 50 miles of road required to give the company the right to sell is nearly ready for the iron, and the whole work is progressing rapidly.

We have been thus particular in the details of these great works, because they form a matter for future reference, and because these roads afford examples of the success of bold, private enterprise where governments had failed. It was an operation that requires a *good name* more than wealth, and well had the associated gentlemen earned that good name. Illinois had fallen into discredit with the moneyed men of the commercial world, and men who could command confidence were requisite. The great value of the fertile fields of Illinois, and the favorable nature of the country for rail-roads, suggested the fact that the lands granted would, if properly managed, more than build the road; and the operation successfully carried out would leave in the hands of the few gentlemen who undertook it, the magnificent property of a rail-road 670 miles long, in full operation, through one of the most thriving countries of the world, *entirely free of cost*, and also of the benefits which the construction of the road brings already to the western country.

As an illustration of the reciprocal benefits derived by the road from the lands, and by the lands from the road, we may state that the public lands would sell in limited quantities only at the government *minimum* price, $1.25; but some gentlemen who recently wished to purchase a tract in a wild region on the Kinkakee River, 60 miles from Chicago, but on the line of the road, were compelled to give $15,000 for 1,000 acres.

During the late land sales of the government in that region, the prices ranged $2 50 to $7 per acre, and were kept down at that rate only by agreement among the buyers not to bid on each other, but to divide purchases. These lands, some of them, had been thirty years in the market without buyers. This activity and rise in government lands has been apparent in a greater degree in private lands. The federal government, as we have seen, granted 2,600,000 acres, which it might in time have sold for $3,300,000; along with an equal quantity which it has reserved, making $6,600,000; but this reserved lot is now selling at $5 average, through the influence of the road built with

the quantity granted. It will bring at least $15,000,000. The government will thus make $9,000,000 by giving away half, and the private land-holders will make at least $20,000,000. Thus, if the enterprising gentlemen of the company make a splendid fortune, they will still be behind the government and the citizens in profit.

The practical operation upon private lands may be illustrated by several actual sales which have taken place during the present year, under the operation and within the influence of the rail-road, which is already causing the great western navigation to follow its route in a southerly direction, rather than to push west, following the water-course. The following are some sales of land in Illinois:

Lee County—1,800 acres sold at $3 since 1842, by P. S. Wiseman—sold at auction, 1852, at	$7 00
Ogle County—400 acres, offered without takers, at $5, in 1850—sold this year at	12 00
Ogle County—300 acres, Mr. Armstrong bought in 1850 for $2,100—sold this year at	4,000 00
Lee County—280 acres, sold by Mr. Barnes in 1850 for $1,000, re-sold for	2,200 00
Cook County—25 acres, sold in 1845 for $300, re-sold in 1847 for $1,200, and this year for	12,000 00
Ogle County—Buffalo Grove lands, held at $3, have sold at	8 00
Stephenson County—1,200 acres offered in 1849 at $3, sold in May at	6 00
Ogle County—4,000 acres, cost $3¼ in 1844, now offered for cash at	9 00

These are but a few items among a great number, and we mention them here as an indication of the activity which, after a slumber of ten years, has overtaken the rich farm lands of Illinois. There are, according to the census, 5,114,041 acres of improved land in Illinois. If these lands were like the former alluded to, held at $3, and have now doubled in value, and become *active* at that value, the property of every individual in the state has doubled by the mere projection of the rail-road. The demand for the lands is *effective*, because the tide of immigration is turned upon these lands, of which 11,449,471 acres still remain unsold, but which, as stated above, at the late land sales of the government, were taken up at a range of $2½ and $7 per acre.

It is mainly by this process that rail-roads universally condense and keep active the population of districts, and what is remarkable, that no matter where a rail-road may be located, the receipts from freights always increase faster than from passengers. Take the following illustration:

	Massachusetts.		South Carolina.		Erie Rail-road.	
	Freights	Passengers	Freights	Passengers	Freights	Passengers
1844	963,863	1,498,026	312,547	176,591	76,046	45,402
1851	2,650,465	3,525,118	664,184	287,341	1,108,138	1,163,535

The tonnage per mile of the Erie Rail-road may be illustrated thus:

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Length of road, miles	53	69	74	224	337	464
Tons carried	45,601	58,431	64,497	90,378	131,312	250,096
Tons per mile	900	910	870	400	400	350

As the road rapidly extended itself, the freight maintained its ratio per mile until completed, when the ratio per mile immediately began to increase. The New-York and Hudson River Road has powerfully

operated against the steamboat interest, and everywhere navigation contends at disadvantage with opposing rails. In England, the multiplying of rail-roads has operated in a remarkable degree against the coasting tonnage, and sail vessels have been driven out of the transportation of coal from Newcastle for the supply of London by the rail-roads. There is no doubt but that these works will become the great feature of the age, and the means of carrying migration into the southern states. They may be regarded as the great necessity of New-Orleans, which, of all other cities, requires rapid and prompt communication with distant localities.

ART. IV.—AUSTRALIA.*

GEOGRAPHY, CLIMATE, GEOLOGY, NATURAL HISTORY, COLONIZATION, POPULATION, AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, IMPROVEMENTS, GOLD MINES AND PRODUCTS, ETC., ETC.

Discovery.—The Spanish and Portuguese navigators first landed on the shores of this country in the latter part of the 17th century, but their accounts are meagre and imperfect. After this the western shores were explored by the Dutch, who gave to it the name of New Holland. In 1780 the eastern and northern shores were explored by Capt. Cook, who, from some fancied resemblance, named a portion of the eastern shore New South Wales, which appellation one of the colonies still bears.

Geographical Features.—The region which now is generally known by the title of Australia, though surrounded by water, and separating, in part, the basin of the Pacific from that of the Indian Ocean, is truly continental, in extent reaching from 10° 45′ S. to 38° 45′ S., and from the meridian 112° 20′ E. to 153° 30′ E. of Greenwich. The distance from north to south between its extreme points is about 1,700 miles, and the extreme distance east and west is about 2,400 miles. The area is estimated at 2,690,810 square miles, being more than three-fourths that of the whole of Europe. The sea-coast is 8,000 miles. The coast is indented by numerous bays and harbors, without being penetrated by any large body of water, excepting the vast Gulf of Carpentaria on the north. The eastern coast from Bass Straits to York Peninsula is bordered by a mountain range, which is continued in what Leichart calls a "collar" around the Gulf of Carpentaria. This chain is highest in the south among the Australian Alps, where Mount Kosciusko attains a height of 6,500 feet in 36° 20′ S., and diminishing towards the north to Mount Hinchinbrook, 3,500 feet in 18° 22′ S., and still further diminishing to Pudding-pan Hill, 384 feet high, in the latitude of 11° 19′ S. The southern coast, along the western portion of the great Australian

---

* Porter's Progress British Empire. Martin's Australia, published by Tallis & Co. New-York & London, 1852; Martin's British Colonies, by Tallis & Co.

gulf, consists of a low and sandy calcareous formation, without a single water-course for 800 miles; and the northwest coast, between the parallels of 16° and 21°, is composed of sandy beaches, with no indications of high land in the interior. With these two exceptions, the whole of Australia is surrounded by a mountain belt from 2,000 to 6,000 feet high, at a distance of from 50 to 100 miles from the coast. Short rivers from this range to the sea; and on the interior slope, it is supposed rivers flow either into a central basin, or that they are swallowed up by the burning sands of a desert.

The coral formation in the sea north and east of Australia is of vast extent; one, the Great Barrier Reef, extends about 1,100 geographical miles along the northeastern coast, and at a mean distance of about 30 miles from the shore.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Australia is remarkably salubrious, except the marshes on the northwest. All the explorers bear testimony to the uniform health they enjoyed; and the robustness soon acquired by the residents in the Bush indicates the favorable influence of the climate on health. The south wind is cold, and is invariably indicated by a rise in the barometer. Rain usually commences in the northeast, and gradually the wind changes to the northwest. The sky is, generally speaking, without a cloud, and the brightness of the moon is even distressing; fine print can be easily read by its light.

Dr. Lang speaks thus of the climate:

"For eight months of the year, from March to November, the climate of New South Wales is delightful. The sky is seldom clouded, and for weeks together the sun looks down in unveiled beauty. Refreshing showers in ordinary seasons are not unfrequent, and it sometimes rains as heavily as within the tropics. It seldom freezes in Sydney, and never snows, but fires are requisite during the day in the winter months, and for a considerable time longer in the mornings and evenings. During summer the heat is rarely oppressive, the thermometer seldom rising higher than 75 deg."

THE MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE OF PORT JACKSON.

Years.	Summer.	Winter.	Difference.
1842	68.390	57.055	11.355
1843	67.987	57.473	10.514
1844	66.731	56.245	10.486

The mean annual temperature at Port Macquarie is 68°, and the fluctuation 27.5, and at Port Phillip the mean annual temperature is 61.3°, and the fluctuation 37.3°.

The quantity of rain which falls at these points on the east coast, for each season, is as follows:

	Summer.	Winter.	Annual Quantity.
Port Macquarie	37.58	25 10	62.68
Port Jackson	24 48	28.00	52.42
Port Phillip	13.25	17.47	30.72

The rain sometimes pours in torrents. A picturesque description of a flood in an Australian river (the Macquarie) is given by Sir J. L. Mitchell, the surveyor-general of New South Wales. The report had been made of the coming of the flood, and the narrator was expecting its arrival. He says: "Towards evening I stationed a man with a gun a little way up the river with orders to fire, on the flood's

appearance, that I might have time to run to the part of the channel nearest to our camp, and witness what I had so much wished to see, as well from curiosity as urgent need. The shades of evening came, however, but no flood; and the man on the look-out returned to the camp. Some hours later, and after the moon had risen, a murmuring sound like that of a distant water-fall, mingled with occasional cracks as of breaking timber, drew our attention, and I hastened to the river bank. By very slow degrees the sound grew louder, and at length so audible, as to draw various persons besides from the camp, to the river-side. Still no flood appeared, although its approach was indicated by the occasional rending of trees with a loud noise. Such a phenomenon, in a most serene moonlight night, was quite new to us all. At length the rushing sound of waters and loud cracking of timber announced that the flood was in the next bend. It rushed into our sight, glittering in the moonbeams, a moving cataract, tossing before it ancient trees and snapping them against its banks. It was preceded by a point of meandering water, picking its way like a thing of life, through the deepest parts of the dark, dry and shady bed of what thus again became a flowing river. By my party, situated as we were at that time, beating about the country, and impeded on our journey solely by the almost total absence of water, suffering excessively from thirst and extreme heat, I am convinced the scene never can be forgotten. Here came at once abundance, the product of storms in the far-off mountains that overlooked our homes. My first impulse was to have welcomed this flood on our knees, for the scene was sublime in itself, while the subject—an abundance of water sent to us in the desert—greatly heightened the effect to our eyes. Suffice it to say, I had witnessed nothing of such interest in all my Australian travels."

Geology, Etc.—Australia appears to have risen from the ocean at a comparatively recent geological era. The sandstone appears to be the most extensive formation. On the east coast the strata of this rock lie in perfectly horizontal layers, having apparently never been disturbed. The mountain ranges, from Bass's Straits as far as 19° south, consist of vast masses of sandstone. The axis of this mountain range is granite, with occasional masses of greenstone, basalt, and other igneous rocks, and it is flanked on both sides by beds of sandstone, limestone and coal. On the northwest coast the red sandstone is again met, topped by a limestone containing corals and recent shells. The coal is principally confined to the east coast. South of Hunter's river, New South Wales, is an extensive field. The seams of coal are seen on the face of the cliffs, and may be traced for nine miles until they suddenly sink below the surface. South of Lake Macquarie the beds of coal again appear. Beds of sandstone and clay slate with vegetable impressions alternate with the coal. Argillaceous iron ore is found imbedded in these rocks. This coal, as analyzed by Count Strzelecki, gives carbon 62.8, bitumen 25.2, earthy matter, 25.2. It burns easily with a reddish flame, swells and agglutinates. It is of a black color, even fracture, foliated structure, soft and brittle, specific gravity 2.31. A seam of 10 feet in thickness has been recently dis-

covered. In the vicinity of Port Phillip, in the Victoria district, several seams, varying in thickness from two inches to four feet, have been traced in alternation with sandstone, a soapy clay, and greystone. The coal strata increase in thickness towards Cape Liptrap, where the presence of extensive beds of this mineral are strongly indicated.

The copper mines occur in the Wellington district. The beds of ore are very rich, forming, previous to the gold discovery, the most important mineral export of the colony. Lead and silver have also been worked in the same vicinity.

The geological features of the country bordering the eastern coast range, before the actual discovery, had induced eminent geologists, especially Sir R. J. Murchison, to express the opinion that gold would probably be found abundantly.

The native animals of Australia of the higher orders are but few. Only 58 species of the mammalia belong as natives to Australia, and of these more than one half belong to the tribes of opossums, kangaroos, and others of the like *marsupial* order. The genera *echidna* and *ornithorhynchus* are bird-like in their structure, and have characterized the anomalous *fauna* of this region, where nature seems to delight in contrasts. Here the eagle and crow are white and the swan is black. The cassowary is found in the greater part of the island, and resembles in its habits and natural affinities the ostrich of Africa. The reptiles of Australia are numerous, and serpents and lizards abound, especially in the tropical regions of the north.

The vegetation of Australia is as peculiar as the animal creation; gigantic gum trees (*eucalypti*) form the most imposing feature of the Australian forest. The beauty and luxuriance of the plants of one district of New South Wales, are indicated by the name of Botany Bay, applied to it by Capt. Cook.

Colonization.—The report of Capt. Cook was so favorable of the eastern shore of Australia, that a colony was projected in 1787, and the experiment of transporting thither its convict population was commenced by the British government. In the spring of the abovementioned year Capt. Charles Philip sailed, having under his command a small fleet, and carrying 757 convicts, guarded by a small military force. The first settlement was made at Port Jackson, the harbor of Sydney, and thus was planted the germ of a great empire. Within less than half a century from the landing of the convicts, land was sold in the town of Sydney at the rate of £20,000 an acre. Other classes of immigrants were soon allured to the colony by free grants of land, and though the progress was slow for many years, the increase, even before the gold discovery, was sufficiently rapid to awaken the liveliest interest in the rising state. The following returns show the growth of the colony. In 1828 a census of New South Wales was taken, and the following was the result:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Free immigrants	2,846	1,827	4,673
Born in colony	4,473	4,254	8,727
Free by servitude	5,302	1,342	6,644
Pardoned	835	51	886
Convicts	14,155	1,513	15,668
Total	27,611	8,987	36,598

Between 1828 and 1833 there arrived in the colony 6,021 free settlers and 16,792 convicts, and the excess in the number of births beyond deaths, according to registers then not very carefully kept, was in the same five years 1,254.

In 1833 another census was taken, and the numbers found were—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Free, under 12 years old	5,256	4,931	10,187
" above 12 "	17,542	8,521	26,063
Convicts	21,846	2,698	24,544
Total	44,644	16,150	60,794

Another census was taken in March, 1841, and exhibited the following results:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Arrived free	30,745	22,158	52,903
Born in the colony	14,819	14,622	29,441
Free by servitude and pardon	15,760	3,637	19,397
Bond, viz:—			
Holding tickets of leave	5,843	316	6,159
In government employment	6,658	979	7,637
In private assignment	11,343	1,838	13,181
Total	85,168	43,550	128,718

In 1850 New South Wales contained 265,503 inhabitants, and at the commencement of the present year not less than 400,000. The city of Sydney numbers a population of between 70 and 80,000, and the greatest activity prevails in its business affairs. It possesses a magnificent government-house, churches, theatres, and all the marks of wealth and civilization. Paramatta, about 15 miles from Sydney, is connected with that place by a railway, and contains a population of 5,000. The chief towns are Windsor, Maitland, Newcastle, Bathurst and Goulburn. The settlement of Western Australia, or Swan River, was begun in 1829. The number of residents soon reached 850; in 1839 the population was 2,154, and now, probably, less than 5,000. This colony has never flourished, the superior inducements of other portions having drawn off its strength. It is said to be rich in coal and other mineral treasures, and to be well adapted for farming and grazing.

South Australia was founded in 1836 by a company, who obtained a large tract of territory from the government, on condition that the land should in no case be given away, but sold to actual settlers at

the uniform price of $5 per acre, and that the funds derived from sales should be expended in providing free passages for laborers, and in public works for the benefit of the colony. South Australia occupies an area of 300,000 square miles, or nearly twenty millions of acres. The Murray River, about 1,500 miles in length, and sometimes called Australian Mississippi, traverses the colony.

The number of settlers who arrived in the colony of South Australia, up to the close of 1840, was:—1836, 941; 1837, 1,279; 1838, 2,598; 1839, 5,197; 1840, 5,025; total, 15,040.

In 1846 the population was 22,000. In 1845 the discovery of the copper mines of this region was made, and, till the gold was discovered, was the cause of a rapid advance in the colony. In 1851 the city of Adelaide, the capital, contained 15,000 inhabitants. The climate of South Australia is peculiarly bland, and pulmonary complaints are almost unknown.

The colony of Port Phillip or Victoria was first settled in 1834, by a few sheep-owners from Van Dieman's Land. In 1836 it was explored by Sir Thomas Mitchell, who was so pleased with its fine soil and climate, that he bestowed on it the name of Australia Felix. It is better watered than any of the other districts, and the dreadful droughts to which they are exposed do not here prevail. The first sale of town lots in Melbourne, the capital, took place in 1837. In 1845 it contained 11,000 inhabitants; in 1851 it contained 23,000, and now the population is nearly 50,000, and increasing at the most rapid rate, the emigration being mainly directed to Melbourne.

The last census, that of 1851, gives the following as the population of the different colonies of Australia:

New South Wales	200,000
Port Phillip or Victoria	70,000
South Australia or Adelaide	70,000
Swan River or Western Australia	10,000
Aborigines	30,000
Total	380,000

Included in the above, the population of the principal cities was given: Melbourne, 25,000; Adelaide, 14,000.

Agriculture.—The different districts vary greatly in their character; some are suited for grazing, in others the yield to the plow is enormous, while the arid regions of the interior are a perfect desert. The productions have a large range, from the tropical climate of the north to the mildly temperate of the southern coast. One fact is, however, notable—that within a half century Australia should have become the greatest wool-exporting country in the world. Dr. Leichardt, one of the recent explorers, says, "That the greatest part of the country is fit for pastoral purposes, excepting only the scrubs of the east coast, the mountain gorges of the Upper Lynd and the tea-tree scrubs of the west coast of the Gulf of Carpentaria." Along the northern coast every variety of tropical fruit will grow wherever sufficient moisture exists; the cotton, indigo, cocoanut, the banana, the arrow-root, the bread-fruit tree, the pineapple, the mango and the mangostine, flourish in the vicinity of Port Essington.

The following table exhibits the amount of land granted and in cultivation in the colony of New South Wales:

Year.	Granted. Acres.	Cleared or Pastured. Acres.	Cultivated. Acres.
1810	95,637	81,937	13,700
1820	381,466	349,195	32,271
1825	673,699	127,878	45,514
1828	2,906,346	231,578	71,523
1833	4,014,117	—	—
1848	5,500,000	—	163,669

The crops and produce of the cereals, potatoes, tobacco, hay, &c., in both New South Wales and Port Phillip, are shown in the following:

PRODUCE.

Year	Wheat Bushels	Maize Bushels	Barley Bushels	Oats Bushels	Rye Bushels	Millet Bushels	Potatoes Tons	Tobacco Cwts.	Hay Tons
1837	692,620	632,155	51,447	17,119	6,753	695	2,102	2,034	5,627
1838	469,140	556,268	32,103	13,416	4,878	353	3,496	4,952	6,960
1839	805,140	525,507	66,033	27,788	7,008	283	2,601	2,509	25,923
1840	1,116,814	777,947	105,389	66,020	8,863	3,338	11,050	4,300	21,329
1841	832,776	503,803	90,172	62,704	6,507	1,072	11,141	2,642	17,175
1842	854,432	590,134	88,767	84,321	4,451	1,201	12,561	2,014	18,622
1843	1,000,225	719,358	95,658	92,268	5,145	410	16,392	6,098	27,774
1844	1,312,652	575,913	132,612	70,620	4,475	511	22,748	6,382	31,848
1845	1,211,099	499,122	175,407	88,193	4,101	775	19,906	3,985	28,614
1846	1,421,750	870,400	193,835	216,783	2,250	1,929	18,329	2,087	42,754
1847	1,027,802	725,704	87,636	221,731	1,200	798	14,240	725	33,111
1848	1,528,874	262,340	145,219	116,643	2,386	158	14,954	3,059	37,795

The number of acres in vineyards, and their produce, in the year 1848, was:

	Acres.	Wine in gals.	Brandy.
New South Wales	887	97,300	1,163
Port Phillip	108	6,306	100

The great staple of Australian agriculture are the products of the numerous flocks and herds of the eastern and southeastern sections; and the increase in stock of all kinds is beyond a parallel.

The following table indicates such increase:

Years.	Horses.	Horned cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.
1788	7	7	29	No returns.
1810	1,114	11,276	34,550	"
1820	4,014	68,149	119,777	"
1825	6,142	134,519	337,622	"
1828	12,479	262,868	536,391	"
1848	113,895	1,752,852	11,660,819	70,875

Live stock is becoming one of the staple exports, and horses had been recently purchased largely by the East India Company for their cavalry and artillery service, and their southern origin rendered them well adapted to resist the effects of that trying climate.

LIVE STOCK EXPORTED FROM NEW SOUTH WALES AND PORT PHILLIP.

Years	Horses	Asses and Mules	Horned Cattle	Sheep	Hogs	Value
1843	248	2	1,852	77,116	—	£41,915
1844	489	3	3,329	53,318	—	40,394
1845	1,159	—	3,079	33,651	6	53,438
1846	1,021	—	6,052	37,848	4	52,942
1847	466	—	8,034	71,440	—	57,355
1848	1,182	—	16,904	895,211	—	85,184

In the production of wool, Australia bade fair to become one of the leading exporting regions of the earth, and the supplies of that valuable commodity began to be an important item in the vast wool-consuming manufactories of the mother country. Wool has always been considered one of the foundations of English prosperity, and one of her oldest branches of trade, for which many protective statutes were passed, and the excise fostered by her statesmen and monarchs for centuries.

At the end of the 17th century, the value of the wool shorn in England was estimated at £2,000,000. The number of sheep in Great Britain is now estimated at 40 millions, and the annual production of wool at 120,000,000 pounds.

"In 1829, the quantity of foreign wools imported into England was 21,118,976 lbs.; of which 1,838,642 lbs., or about *one-twelfth* part, came from the Australian colonies. The importations for the year 1834, were 45,647,870 lbs., of which the Australian colonies sent 3,558,091 lbs., or less than *one-tenth*. In 1848, the total quantity of wool imported into the United Kingdom was 69,343,477 lbs.; of this Australia furnished 30,034,567 lbs., in the following proportions: New South Wales and Port Phillip, 22,091,481 lbs.; Van Dieman's Land, 4,955,968; South Australia, 2,762,672; Western Australia, 129,295; and New Zealand, 95,151 lbs. The colonies in the Southern Pacific, therefore, contributed nearly *one-half* of the whole wool imported in the year 1848. The proportions of colonial to foreign wool imported for twenty years, between 1826 and 1846, at intervals of five years, is thus shown; the two figures represent so many million lbs. weight; by colonial wool is understood all wool from possessions of the British crown:

Annual Averages of Five Years.	Foreign Wool.	Colonial Wool.	Total Importation.
1826—30	25	2	27
1831—35	34	4	38
1836—40	44	10	54
1841—45	36	22	58
1846	34	30	64
1848	40	29	69

In 1850, the number of sheep was at least 12 millions, yielding annually 25,000,000 pounds of wool. The increase between '43 and '48 was cent. per cent., five millions in four years, notwithstanding the prodigious numbers slaughtered for their tallow. It is reasonable to believe that the number of sheep in 1855 will reach 25 millions, and their annual product 50 millions of pounds of wool.

In 1841 and '42, a very considerable commercial depression existed in Australia, the result of large importations and a variety of causes, and sheep, the staple of the colony, fell from ten shillings to sixpence or a shilling each, and even at that price were only received in the way of barter. This state of things led to the establishment of boiling-down or melting houses, for the purpose of procuring the tallow, &c., from the carcasses.

Number of Boiling-down Establishments, Cattle, Sheep, ., slaughtered, and Tallow and Lard produced.

No. of	Sydney, within the settled Dis.	Sydney, without the settled Dis.	Port Phillip District.	Total.
Establishments	41	14	7	62
Sheep	141,573	24,128	120,691	286,392
Horned Cattle	27,682	5,415	5,545	38,642
Tallow, cwts.	49,311	11,530	27,725	88,567
Hogs	23	33	2	58
Lard, cwts.	875	990	200	2,065

The exports of tallow, &c., for six years, has been as follows:

Year	Quantity Cwt.	Value
1843	5,680	£9,639
1844	56,609	83,511
1845	71,995	102,746
1846	20,357	28,107
1847	69,690	108,186
1848	98,213	140,579

The butter and cheese of Australia are particularly fine, and the following tables show the increase in the exports of these articles:

	IMPORTED.		EXPORTED.	
Year	Quantity, lbs.	Value	Quantity, lbs.	Value
1843	248,170	£9,497	81,173	£3,488
1844	60,704	1,184	188,174	3,717
1845	22,216	579	172,368	4,313
1846	45,456	1,062	100,287	3,665
1847	10,164	413	253,880	5,977
1848	15,456	417	216,130	4,116

The exports of lumber have been:

Year	Quantity of Cedar	Gum, Pine and other Timber.	Tree-nails and Spikes.	Value
1843	944,121 sup. feet	10,020 feet 30 logs	155,294	£9,813
1844	1,222,533 sup. feet 214 pieces. 24 logs.	99,500 feet 33 logs	105,428	8,625
1845	781,415 sup. feet	73,300 feet 241 logs	105,908	8,074
1846	956,515 "	390 006 feet	113,972	7,851
1847	953,995 "	46,850 feet	165,648	7,333
1848	863,507 "	22,150 feet 20 pieces 7,600 shn'gs.	76,201	5,675

EXPORTS OF AUSTRALIA.

	1839		1848		1850	
	Wool	Total	Wool	Total	Wool	Total
New-South Wales	£442,504	£948,776	£1,340,144	£1,830,868	£1,614,241	£2,399,569
Van Dieman's Land	194,647	875,165	195,143	490,281	451,203	1,172,530
South Australia	8,740	16,039	91,582	504,068	131,730	570,816
Western "	2,278		9,660		15,482	22,134

IMPORTS OF AUSTRALIA.

	1839	1848	1850
New-South Wales	£2,236,371	£1,556,550	£2,078,338
Van Dieman's Land	746,887	594,154	285,572
South Australia	346,649	382,327	51,351
Western "	5,448	29,598	1,232,272

The above tables present a view of the agricultural prospects of the infant empire, and we cannot but be struck by the immense and rapid production of animal life they display. Great changes must take place, and the sheep-walk yield by degrees to the plow; but we cannot but conclude that this prominence will exist for many years, and that the soil and climate of Australia are adapted to grazing and pasturing in an eminent degree.

The agricultural productions of the colonies of South Australia and Western Australia are similar to those of the more flourishing settlements on the eastern and southeastern coast. The quantity of wool shipped from South Australia in 1845, was 1,078,559 lbs.; in 1846, 1,473,186; 1847, 1,804,918; 1848, 2,329,134; the value of the yearly export is about £120,000, and tallow, wheat flour, maize and oats, are becoming articles of export, and in 1848, £40,000 were shipped of breadstuffs. The wheat is of excellent quality; one shipment lately received in England weighing from 63 to 65 pounds to the bushel. The entire value of the exports of the colony for 1848, was £354,907.

MANUFACTURES.—As might be expected, manufactures are yet in their infancy, and the only establishments are in the two provinces of New South Wales and Port Phillip or Victoria, and are chiefly connected with the preparation of the great agricultural staples. The number and nature of these manufactories are contained below:

	Sydney.	Port Phillip.	South Australia
Grinding and dressing grain	157	18	25
Distilleries and rectifying, &c.	4	..	..
Breweries	12	9	14
Sugar refining	2	..	..
Soap	15	3	5
Tobacco and snuff	4	..	1
Woolen cloth	6	..	1
Hat	4	..	..
Rope	4	..	..
Tanneries	33	7	7
Salt	2	..	..
Starch	1	..	..
Blacking	2	..	..
Patent Oatmeal, &c.	1	..	..
Salting establishments	1	1	..
Meat preserving	3	..	..
Potteries	7	..	..
Glass work	..	1	..
Smelting copper	1	..	2
Iron and brass foundries	11	2	2
Patent slip for ships	1	..	..
Steam vessels	17	..	..
Fire engines	3	..	..
Coach manufactories	..	..	4
Machine manufactories	..	..	4

In 1847, 18,484 yards of cloth, 156,604 yards of tweeds, 424 blankets, were made at the woolen manufactories. The soap factories turned out, in 1848, 24,180 cwt. of that article; 1,000 cwt. of tobacco is annually manufactured; and in 1848, 26,000 cwt. of sugar was refined.

COMMERCE.—The increase in the trade and shipping of the colonies of Australia has kept pace with that of the population.

IMPORTS INTO NEW SOUTH WALES AND PORT PHILLIP, 1828 TO 1848.

Years.	From Great Britain	From British Colonies.	From South Sea Islands.	From Fisheries	From United States.	From other Foreign States.	Total.
1828	£399,892	£125,862	—	£44,246	—	—	£570,000
1829..	423,463	135,486	—	42,055	—	—	601,004
1830..	268,935	60,356	—	91,189	—	—	420,480
1831..	241,989	68,804	—	179,359	—	—	490,152
1832..	409,344	47,895	—	147,381	—	—	604,620
1833..	434,220	61,662	—	218,090	—	—	713,972
1834..	669,663	124,570	—	197,757	—	—	991,990
1835..	707,183	144,824	£1,420	177,365	£13,902	£70,161	1,114,805
1836..	794,429	220,254	1,972	135,730	22,739	62,289	1,237,406
1837..	807,264	300,313	1,764	80,441	9,777	97,932	1,297,491
1838..	1,102,127	309,918	5,548	71,506	8,066	82,112	1,579,277
1839..	1,251,969	576,537	3,863	186,212	23,093	194,697	2,236,371
1840..	2,200,305	431,146	1,348	104,895	24,164	252,331	3,014,189
1841..	1,837,369	332,296	24,361	97,809	35,282	200,871	2,527,988
1842..	854,774	298,201	10,020	64,999	20,117	206,948	1,455,059
1843..	1,034,942	227,029	22,387	42,579	12,041	211,566	1,550,544
1844..	643,419	153,923	10,624	32,507	17,187	73,600	931,260
1845..	777,112	237,759	40,048	43,503	7,416	128,016	1,233,854
1846..	1,119,301	262,943	21,799	56,461	4,459	165,559	1,630,522
1847..	1,347,241	388,724	6,919	41,557	1,550	196,032	1,982,023
1848..	1,084,054	263,787	2,642	73,715	2,065	130,287	1,556,550

EXPORTS FROM NEW SOUTH WALES AND PORT PHILLIP, 1828 TO 1848.

Year	To Great Britain	To British Colonies	To South Sea Islands	To Fisheries	To United States	To other Foreign States	Total
1828..	£84,008	£4,845	—	£6,708	—	—	£90,050
1829..	146,283	12,692	—	15,821	—	—	161,716
1830..	120,559	15,597	—	—	—	—	141,461
1831..	211,138	60,354	—	16,949	—	—	324,168
1832..	252,106	63,934	—	19,545	—	—	384,344
1833..	269,508	67,344	—	—	—	—	394,801
1834..	400,738	128,911	—	28,729	—	—	587,640
1835..	496,345	83,108	£2,696	39,882	£18,594	£3,011	682,193
1836..	513,976	136,596	9,628	30,180	13,697	2,625	748,624
1837..	518,951	157,975	485	54,434	10,617	17,592	760,864
1838..	583,154	160,640	7,137	33,988	11,394	6,525	802,768
1839..	597,100	289,857	1,347	34,729	18,568	7,175	948,776
1840..	792,494	520,210	6,621	27,864	27,885	24,618	1,399,692
1841..	706,336	238,948	13,144	15,417	4,837	41,715	1,023,397
1842..	685,705	298,023	3,005	22,862	17,101	40,715	1,067,411
1843..	825,885	285,756	17,934	18,827	—	23,918	1,172,320
1844..	854,903	236,352	14,106	11,623	—	11,131	1,128,115
1845..	1,254,881	276,788	17,656	1,593	—	5,068	1,555,986
1846..	1,130,179	328,922	13,441	590	—	8,407	1,481,539
1847..	1,503,091	335,137	14,231	—	—	17,587	1,870,046
1848..	1,483,224	335,887	6,944	—	—	4,313	1,830,368

The relative proportion of the shipping engaged in the trade of Sydney, New South Wales, and of Melbourne, Port Phillip, is thus shown by the tonnage entering inwards from Great Britain, the British colonies, and elsewhere, in 1848:

—	From Great Britain.		From British Colonies.				From South Sea Islands.		From Fisheries.		From United States.		From other Foreign States.		Total.	
			New Zealand.		Elsewhere.											
	No	Tons.	No.	Tons	No	Tons.	No	Tons.	No	Tons.	No	Tons.	No	Tons.	No	Tons.
Sydney	71	34,309	106	23,877	232	45,173	23	2,695	63	17,473	1	406	30	7,753	527	131,686
Port Phillip	48	23,295	10	956	406	42,349	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	1,018	469	67,618
Total	119	57,604	116	24,883	639	87,522	23	2,695	63	17,473	1	406	35	8,771	996	199,300

Of late years the whale and seal fisheries of New South Wales have diminished, though the ports of Australia and those of Van Dieman's land and New Zealand, are favorably situated for carrying on this occupation.

"The number of ships engaged in the whale fishery in 1848, in connection with New South Wales, was 64; viz: 37 foreign; 3 British; 24 colonial; and the produce—sperm oil, 1,274 tuns, value £67,005; black oil, 389 tuns, £9,180; whalebone, 306 tons, £1,472. Total value, £77,852. At Port Phillip there were four boats engaged, which collected 15½ tuns oil, value £235; whalebone, 6 tons, 6 cwt."

The number and tonnage of vessels built and registered in the colonies have been:

	Vessels Built.		Vessels Registered.	
Years.	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
1834	9	376	19	1,852
1835	7	303	21	2,267
1836	9	301	39	4,560
1837	17	760	36	3,602
1838	20	808	41	6,329
1839	12	773	79	10,862
1840	18	1,207	98	12,426
1841	35	2,074	110	11,250
1842	26	1,357	89	9,948
1843	47	1,433	92	7,022
1844	18	519	87	8,087
1845	18	1,042	98	9,376
1846	28	1,032	83	4,895
1847	36	2,284	104	9,428
1848	28	1,561	103	7,584

Mines.—The mineral treasures of Australia are only paralleled by those of the United States in variety and abundance, and the opening of them has begun to shape out a national destiny for the once convict colony.

In 1842, several years after the settlement of South Australia, a fine specimen of green carbonate of copper was found by a lad gathering flowers on one of the plains; soon after a neighbor discovered a protruding mass of clay deeply tinged with the same mineral. The father of the lad, Capt. Bagot, and Mr. Dutton, the second observer, purchased an 80-acre lot of this locality, the present Kapunda mines, at the government price, £80. They have since been offered, and refused £27,000 for their land.

The famous Burra Burra mines are situated on Burra Creek, 85 miles from the city of Adelaide. A gentleman who visited these mines makes the following mention of them:

"The deposits of iron are greater than those of copper, and it is impossible to describe the appearance of the huge clean masses of which they are composed. They look indeed like immense blocks that had only just passed from the forge. The deposits at the Burra Burra amounted to some thousand tons, and led to the impression that where so great a quantity of surface ore existed but little would be found beneath. In working this gigantic mine it has proved otherwise. I was informed by one of the share-holders that it took three hours and three-quarters to go through the shafts and galleries of the mine. Some of the latter are cut through solid blocks of ore which glitter like gold where the hammer or chisel has struck the rock as you pass with a candle among them."

During the year 1848 over 16,000 tons of ore were raised from this mine, and in fifteen months the dividends of profit amounted to £123,200, one thousand per cent. on the capital invested.

There are about thirty-five mines in South Australia, one-half of which were in active working in 1848; they are all copper except two of lead and copper, five lead and silver lead, and one copper and gold.

The following table presents the exports of these mines:

	Ores in tons.			
	Copper.	Lead.	Emery.	Value.
1843	1	18		£127
1844	277	203		6,436
1845	664	273		13,484
1846	2,691	189		60,314
1847	6,921	60		142,640
1848	10,632	271	68	203,788
1849	16,323	682		320,624

The controlling event in the history of Australia was the discovery of gold. Early in the spring of 1851 Mr. Hargreaves, a returned Californian, struck with the geological resemblance of the country to the gold-bearing regions of California, proceeded to a spot in the Bathurst district, New South Wales. He found the bed of the creek filled with grains and scales of gold. Mr. H. communicated his discovery to the governor of the colony, Sir C. Fitzroy, under whose directions Mr. Hargreaves was again dispatched to the scene of his discovery in company with the colonial geologist, Mr. Stutchbury. The beds of the streams descending from the Blue Mountain range were found to be auriferous. The discovery was soon noised abroad, and in a month's time thousands of miners were engaged in digging at "Ophir," the locality of the discovery, and on the banks of the Turon, a tributary of the Macquarie. The copper region of South Australia was next eagerly searched, but no gold was found. In the colony of Victoria, or Australia Felix, as it has been named, the *prospecters* were more fortunate. Gold was first discovered at the volcanic hill called Buninyong, about fifty miles west of Melbourne; this was in the vicinity of the Ballerat diggings. In October, 1851, seven thousand miners had assembled at this spot. Still richer diggings have been discovered at the base of Mount Alexander, and at Bendigo Creek. From thirty to forty thousand miners have been collected at these localities. The regulations adopted by the authorities, and the rigorous enforcement of a license system, had been found very effective in the preservation of order among the Australian miners.

The gold of Australia is exceedingly pure, and is found occasionally in large masses called "nuggets," a corruption of ingots. Soon after the discovery of gold, such a mass was found by a black shepherd in the bed of a creek in the Turon district. Another weighing over twenty-seven pounds, and called the "King of Nuggets," was found at Forest Creek, Mount Alexander; it contains no quartz, but is a massive lump of a very fine color; it is eleven inches in length and five in breadth at the widest part.

The total quantity of gold exported from Port Phillip, or Victoria, up to the 22d of May last, was 32 tons, 4 cwt., 19 lbs.; and its value, at 60s. an ounce, £2,323,908, or over 11 millions of dollars.

The total amount exported from Sydney, up to the 5th of June, is estimated at £1,464,685, or about 7 millions of dollars.

Probably more than 25 millions of dollars worth of gold had been raised between the 1st of October, 1851, and 1st of June following. The region of auriferous deposits is estimated to contain at least 16,000 square miles.

Here, as in California, the gold constants are talcose or micaceous schists, containing veins of quartz, the matrix of the gold. When quartz-crushing mills are erected on a large scale, hardly any limit can be set to the amounts that may be produced, except the labor and capital expended.

As might have been expected, the tide of emigration sets strongly from the British Islands towards Australia. Over a thousand are embarking each week for the new El Dorado, and the harbors of Melbourne and Sydney are crowded with shipping.

Such are the attractions which are laying the foundations of new seats of commerce and empire on the shores of the Pacific; and the next century, perhaps, or the latter part of this, will find Australia and California the recipients of "the wealth of Ormus and of Ind."

When this great trade shall have begun to be developed, the position of New-Orleans is worth regarding, situated centrally between the valley of the Mississippi and those of the Amazon and Orinoco, and midway between the oceans, and the cities of New-York and San Francisco, it becomes a necessity to provide constructions to touch this Pacific trade, and make herself its distributing fountain for the region extending from the delta of the Mississippi to the estuary of the St. Lawrence. As commerce has now new instruments in the steamship, the rail-road and the telegraph, and assumes more and more a cosmic attitude—when art shall have done all that can be done for all points on the surface, the great throne of commerce will at last be placed where the mightiest rivers converge to the sea; and what are the Thames and the Rhine to the Mississippi and the Amazon? Formerly, the ingrossment of the trade of a country was the utmost stretch of the statesman and economist; the merchant-cities of the future will contend for the trade of the hemispheres. New-Orleans has the most commanding geographic situation in the world; energy alone can make it fully available.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE CURATIVE VIRTUES OF THE SUGAR-HOUSE FOR BRONCHIAL, DYSPEPTIC AND CONSUMPTIVE COMPLAINTS—EFFECTS ON NEGROES, ETC.

This paper is the production of Dr. S. A. Cartwright, of New-Orleans, and was kindly furnished for our pages, together with another very interesting one upon sugar, which must be deferred to next month.

A residence in a sugar-house, during the rolling season, far surpasses any other known means of restoring flesh, strength and health—lost by chronic ailments of the chest, throat or stomach. The rolling season is the harvest, when the canes are cut, the juice expressed and converted into sugar. In Louisiana it commences about the middle of October, and ends at Christmas, but is sometimes protracted into January. Not long after the Venetians, in 1471, discovered the art of making sugar from the cane, it was observed that the laborers, engaged in the process, fattened and became more healthy during the cane harvest. The experience of upwards of three centuries, in making sugar from the cane on this continent, proves that the negroes fatten and become remarkably healthy during the rolling season. The health and fattening properties of that season are not confined to the negro race, as some have erroneously supposed. This is abundantly proved by the experience of the sugar-growers of Mauritius, Bengal, Java, the Straits of Malacca, the Philippine Islands, Australia, and many other places where negro labor is not employed. Leonard Wray, a sugar-planter of British India, of vast experience in the culture and manufacture of cane into sugar, and the author of a standard work published in London in 1848, entitled "The Practical Sugar-planter," says, at page 21, "The fattening qualities are abundantly shown on every sugar estate in the world; however, as this admits of no doubt, I need not dwell on it."

It is, however, only at one season of the year, the rolling season, when the operatives on sugar estates are observed to become fat and healthy. This has been attributed to their eating sugar and drinking cane juice and syrup. Inquiry into the matter, guided by the inductive philosophy to aid the mind in the search for truth, will prove that it is not the season of the year, or the sugar consumed, which fattens the operatives, but something wihtin the walls of the sugar-house. The laborers who are not employed in the sugar-house, I have found, from careful inquiry, do not get fat, and are as liable to disease as those on estates where no sugar is made. All the laborers on a sugar estate are divided into two portions—one to labor in the field and to supply the mill with cane; the other to manufacture the juice, after it arrives in the boiling-house, into sugar and molasses. The field hands are engaged in cutting down the cane and hauling it to the mill. They have the cane stalks, abounding in juice, to eat at will, which those in the house have not. As to the sugar and the condensed syrup, neither class of laborers can get access to it, except by permission. Yet those in the sugar-house fatten, while those in the field do not. All improve more or less when they interchange places and each division takes its turn in the sugar-house. Where the time is equally divided, the laborers who remain longest in the house are the fattest. The whites as well as the blacks, who occupy the sugar-house, during the rolling season, fatten and keep healthy. The overseers and sugar-makers are generally white men, and share equally with the negroes in the benefits derived from occupying the manufactory. White men who are engaged in other avocations on the plantation, although the syrup and cane-juice are always at their command, are not observed to fatten.

Not long since, a creole French woman, from La Fourche Interior, whom I had never heard of, came to the city to consult me. She was very lean in flesh. She said that last year I had given one of her neighbors, who was a mere skeleton, a prescription, which had not only fattened him, but had made him

weigh more than he ever did. She wanted the same. On telling me her neighbor's name, I remembered the case of a gentleman, very much reduced in flesh, having pain in the chest, sore throat and bad cough, preceded by *hemorrhage from the lungs*, whom I had advised to take himself to the sugar-house, as soon as the rolling season commenced, and remain in it. He did so, and came out of it weighing more than he ever did. I lately advised a distinguished jurist from New-York to try the same remedy, as soon as the approaching rolling season commences. He looked surprised, and assured me that my advice was only a duplicate copy of that he had already received from Gov. Mouton, a sugar planter and former governor of Louisiana. His excellency is not a physician by profession, nor did he learn from me or I from him, but we both, no doubt, acquired our knowledge of the great virtues of the sugar-house in bad colds, coughs, sore throats, dyspepsia, diseases of the heart, and consumptive complaints, in the same school—the sugar-makers, planters and overseers being the professors, and the broad field of nature the text-book. But the other day, a planter, the owner of some four or five hundred negroes, applied to me for advice, in the cases of a number of emaciated negroes, chiefly children, to keep them up until the rolling season commenced. On being asked what he intended to do with them then, he replied that he would follow his usual custom of sending all such cases into the sugar-house, where he was very certain they would soon recover their health and get fat. If mere sugar, syrup or molasses would cure such cases, that planter, I know, would have given them enough to swim in, rather than see them sick. On questioning him, however, he attributed great virtues to the clarified juice of the cane, drank *hot in the boiling-house*. I found the same opinion very prevalent in the West Indies, when I visited those islands, several years ago, for a chronic inflammation of my throat. The advice was to visit the sugar-houses frequently, and to go into that department called the boiling house, and drink the hot clarified cane juice. Sure enough, the remedy, as far as I observed the numerous invalids who adopted it, was so speedy and effectual in giving relief, that I wrote home, that bronchitis, incipient phthisis, dyspepsia and chronic diseases of the liver or heart, of blood origin, could be thrown off almost as easily as laying off an overcoat. I partook in the belief, that the hot syrup or cane juice was an essential part of the prescription. Last December, having a very severe and distressing cough, which, for some weeks, had resisted the usual remedies, I went into a sugar-house, drank a glass of hot cane juice, and stood over the kettles, called clarifiers, for some hours, inhaling the vapor arising therefrom. The vapor was most agreeable and soothing to the lungs. The fragrant, saccharine aura seemed to penetrate into the inmost recesses of the obstructed lobules, opening its way into the intercellular passages and air-cells, without exciting cough, but removing the obstructions, the cause of the cough. There I stood over the clarifiers, enveloped, for five hours, in a dense cloud of vapor of an agreeable temperature and an aromatic odor; after which I retired to rest and had a refreshing sleep. In the morning the inhalation of the vapor was again resumed, when I returned home, through a cold, raw, windy atmosphere, some ten miles to the city, almost well, without experiencing any inconvenience from the exposure to the cold—the cough and disagreeable sensations of chilliness, smothering and febrile irritation, having disappeared almost entirely.

Having thus struck the trail of a new induction, I was determined to follow it wherever it led, regardless of preconceived opinions. It led to a sugar-refinery, to ascertain whether the vapors therein were the same as those from the clarifiers of a sugar-house. The refinery is a very extensive one, and stands on the ground where the great battle of the 8th of January was fought, about five miles below this city. The inductive philosophy was in pursuit of a more formidable enemy than was there repulsed. The smell of dead men's bones and the fragrant flowers of spring were not more different, than the vapors of the refinery and those of the sugar-house. Both were saccharine, but the saccharine matter was not the same, or was diffused through the air in combination with substances very different. In the refinery, inferior sour sugar, from frost-bitten or damaged cane, was undergoing the process of purification. The planter, who accompanied me, visited the refinery to dispose of his inferior and uncrystallizable

sugar. The vapor was oppressive and disagreeable, while that arising from the clarifiers of the juice of rich ripe cane in the sugar-house was most delightful and soothing. Something, therefore, besides mere saccharine matter is the remedial agent, or all saccharine matter is not the same.

The induction next led to the cane, to ascertain if the juice of all canes be alike in emitting a vapor carrying healing on its wings, when subjected to the process of clarification. It was found that the vapor, from the boiling juice of different canes, differed very essentially; that from badly frost-bitten cane, after a thaw, being almost irrespirable; and that from cane which had taken the second growth from too much heat and moisture, was found to emit a disagreeable odor when heated in the clarifiers. If the cane, after being frost-bitten, be ground and the juice extracted, before a thaw, the vapor arising from the clarifiers of the juice, when heated, could not be told from that which had suffered nothing from the frost.

In order to pursue the induction further, the sciences of botany, organic chemistry and micrography must be called in to clear the way. The latter of these sciences declares that it sees with its glass crystallized sugar deposited on the lining membrane of the cells, where the saccharine matter, like fruit, is deposited. Botany teaches, that each joint of the cane plant has an organ in the shape of a leaf, from three to six feet long, which presides over the sugar-making process of that particular joint. On the perfection of that leaf depends the quantity and quality of the sugar deposited in the cells of that joint. The leaf of any joint, on being stripped off, puts an immediate stop to the plastic organizable sap distributed to that joint, but does not affect the rest. Organic chemistry shows, that the bursting of the cells, from a thaw, intermingles the crystallizable saccharine matter with the nitrogenized principles in the plant, thereby giving rise to a viscous fermentation, and that uncrystallizable sugar is the product. It further shows, that a solution of crystallizable sugar rotates the plane of polarization of polarized light to the right, whereas a solution of the product of fermented cane juice rotates the plane of polarization to the left. No chemical process can ever make good sugar out of it. Yet it can be converted, in the refinery, into *glucose*, or grape sugar, and made to assume a crystalline structure, and moreover to rotate to the right, as in the first instance. It is essentially different, however, from good cane sugar. Alkalies destroy it; because it is united with an acid. But alkalies have no effect upon good cane sugar, although some of them form compounds with it. Strong acids do not act upon glucose or grape sugar, but they speedily destroy good cane sugar. Sugar, made from the uncrystallizable product of fermented cane juice, from beet roots, and the black substance called *goor* in the East Indies, instead of being dignified with the appellation of refined loaf sugar, might more properly be called the tooth-decaying, worm-breeding, scurvy-giving sugar; while that made from the juice of good healthy cane, should be called the tooth-preserving, worm-destroying, anti-scorbutic and nutritious sugar. Certainly, the latter has proved itself to be a good dentrifice, and is known to destroy worms and to cure the scurvy.

It is to the cane juice, from which the latter kind of sugar is made, that the induction leads us to look for the remedial agent existing in the sugar-house, so beneficial in bronchial, dyspeptic and consumptive complaints. A tenuous vapor, of an agreeable aromatic ordor, hovers constantly over the heated juice in the clarifiers. It is demulcent, saccharine, and grateful to the respiratory organs; causing no oppression or feelings of constriction, as other smokes and vapors so often do, but the lungs seem to expand and drink it in with avidity, as the roots of plants inspire the moisture of the earth, impregnated with azotized bodies after a shower. What humus is to vegetable substances, the elements contained in this vapor would seem to be to man.

To follow up the induction, and to ascertain what are the ingredients held in solution in this vapor, chemistry will have to be interrogated. It declares them to consist (besides the sugar and water) of lignin, gluten, green fecula, wax, gum, bi-phospate of lime, and other saline matters. Ten gallons of Louisiana cane juice, sent by Mr. Forestall, of this city, to Dr. Ure, yielded 5½ ounces of saline matters, consisting of the acetate, sulphate and phosphate of potass, chlorure of potassium, acetate of lime and silica. He examined it with reference to the saline

matters alone. One of the saline substances found by Dr. Ure in the unclarified juice, the chlorure of potassium, has been used by Kohler and Christison in phthisis pulmonalis, prosopalgia, &c. Gluten or vegetable albumen, in its various forms of zymome, gliadine, legumin, fibrin, casein and diastase, is also found in the juice. When alkali is added and heat applied, the gluten coagulates and rises to the surface in a thick scum. The green wax, or coloring matter of the juice, contains chlorophyl. The gum is in the form of mucilage. The above-mentioned matters contain within themselves all the elements of fermentation. They are what are called skimmings. In Louisiana they are thrown away, but in the West Indies they are turned to profitable account in making rum. The induction bids us follow them up, to witness their effects in combination out of the body, to give some idea of what the respiration of the same combination of substances, in the form of vapor, could be expected to produce, when applied directly to the lungs. In the West Indies, Jamaica, for instance, the skimmings, precipitates and washings from the boiling-house, are conducted into a reservoir in the distill-house. The alcohol is extracted by distillation. The compound mixture loses nothing but the alcohol. After the alcohol is extracted, it is left to ferment in what is called the dunder-pond. It is then called *dunder*, from *redundar*, a Spanish word, meaning *to contribute*. When clarified, dunder is a light, clear, slightly bitter, aromatic liquid, which is always best when fresh and free from acid. In a mixture of molasses it has the same effect as hops in wort. "Dunder," says Leonard Wray, author of "The Sugar Planter," "is an aromatic substance, which modifies the changes or transformations taking place during fermentation; it increases the density of the liquor, (molasses and water,) preventing violent fermentation, and keeps the liquor comparatively cool in temperature and slow in motion." The vapor from the cane juice of the clarifiers, arises from the identical substances which enter into the composition of dunder, and in addition is mixed with a large proportion of good crystallizable sugar. The drinking of the hot clarified cane juice in the sugar-house, supposed to be so effectual in fattening the laborers and invalids during the rolling season, is shown by the induction to be connected with another circumstance of much more importance than the mere heat of the saccharine fluid imbibed. To get at the hot cane juice, as it runs from the clarifiers, the vapor arising therefrom, containing all the elements of dunder, besides a large quantity of pure saccharine matter, must necessarily be breathed and applied to the whole surface of the bronchial tubes and air-cells of the lungs, from fifteen to twenty times every minute.

The induction we have been pursuing has led us to a polypharmaceutical compound, in the form of vapor, containing all the elements of dunder and sugar, diffused, like a cloud of incense, through the boiling-room, as the efficient agent in giving health and flesh to those who occupy the sugar-house. Experience proves that this compound vapor cures catarrhal, bronchial and some dyspeptic affections. There is also some evidence in its favor as a curative agent in phthisis pulmonalis. Will it be too much to hope, that further experience may discover that it promotes the cicatrization of tuberculous excavations, and heals ulcerations of the mucous surfaces of the tracheal passages? But there is already sufficient evidence to show that it is an antidote to that acrimonious disposition of the humors, so often the cause of phthisis. It also soothes that morbid irritability, the cause of consumption in many constitutions. Andral relates a few cases, in which the absorbents of the lungs were found loaded with tuberculous matter. May not dunder and sugar, in the form of vapor, stimulate the absorbents to remove tubercles? Dr. Turpin, a deservedly-popular French physician, of this city, has collected much evidence in favor of the opinion that tubercles are of animalcular origin. Fresh dunder and good crystallizable sugar are destructive to the inferior orders of the animal creation. Thus, according to Carminati (Opus Therap., Vol. I.) (confirmed by Magendie,) sugar destroys toads and lizards, whether given internally or applied externally. May we not hope that the plant, which Dr. Rush prophesied was then growing somewhere or other in the valley of the Mississippi, of sufficient tonic and nutritive properties to cure consumption, has at length been found? And is not that plant the very same which he and his friend Anthony Benezet were so much

afraid would depopulate two continents; one to get land, and the other to get negroes to work it!

Many persons in the South are greatly benefited by a few weeks' residence in the North. There are fully as many North, who would be equally benefited by a residence on the sugar plantations of the South. An interchange of visits between the two would not only serve to promote the health of each, but to diffuse information and to strengthen the friendly and political relations of both.

Mechanics, such as coopers, brick-masons, carpenters, engineers, smiths, and even common laborers, if well recommended for sobriety, industry and morality, could always find employment, at good wages, on sugar estates in the rolling season. Louisiana and the South generally would be a much better climate than the West Indies, or southern Europe, for consumptive patients, if it were not for occasional spells of cold, wet weather. Patients could avoid all bad weather by confining themselves, at such times, to the sugar-house, where the temperature is nearly always the same, night and day, and the dampness of the external atmosphere is excluded by the processes of sugar-making. If a cure were not effected by the expiration of the rolling season, the West Indies could be reached in three or four days. The dry season does not begin there until January, and until then it would not be proper to go. It is a great error to suppose that the cane plant does not arrive at the same perfection in the southern portion of Louisiana and the states in the same latitude as it does in the West Indies. This idea is founded on the circumstance that it does not form seed. The seed never matures sufficiently anywhere to reproduce the plant, either in the West Indies or in Asia. The cane, like the cotton plant, requires, in the latter stages of its growth, a little cold, dry, frosty weather to make it mature and to prevent its taking the second growth, which it is so apt to do in tropical climates from too much heat and moisture. The cold nights and hot days of our October and November are alike beneficial to both plants. Hence in quality and quantity the southern states of our confederacy can excel the whole world in making sugar and cotton; for the simple reason that the soil, climate and seasons are better adapted to the full maturity of the cane and cotton plants than any other extensive region the world over. The difficulty, in Louisiana, with cane, is the want of sufficient laborers in harvest time, known here as the rolling season, to get in and grind the crop in due time; also in the imperfection of the machinery and a want of practical chemists to superintend the sugar-making processes. Sober, moral and industrious white laborers are more respected in the South than in any other land—which is somewhat contrary to the received opinion at the North, drawn from the estimate in which drunken, vicious and worthless laborers are held. No sensible planter would have such on their plantations, to demoralize and corrupt their negroes; but they are sometimes compelled to employ such or none, for some special purposes. Mechanics, artisans, and men of invention and genius, properly recommended, would find no difficulty in gaining admission and employment on sugar estates.

How long the vapor arising from the clarifiers of the cane juice, should be breathed to effect a cure, would depend on the nature of each individual case. A day or two, or a week or two, might be sufficient for some, while the whole season of sixty to ninety days would be required in other cases. The modus operandi of the respired vapor is an interesting question, but would occupy too much room for this paper, already too long, I fear, for the reader's patience; as it would lead into an investigation of the effects of respiration on the assimilating functions under the light afforded by the Willardian or American discovery of the motive powers, which produce the circulation of the fluids. But when the physicians of young America are prepared to throw off the chains of old, non-progressive, dogmatical Europe, and get tired of following in the wake of the destructive march of phthisis, exploring mere effects with the stethoscope, but are ready to face about to grapple with the original cause of the most fatal malady of the master race of men, they may calculate on my feeble aid, if living.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

CUBA TRADE—1846-52.—The condition of Cuba is such as to point out to any reasonable person the necessity for a great and prompt change in the management of its affairs. Of late years the department of industry in other countries which rival Cuba in her productions, has been such as to make the burdens imposed upon Cuban planters annually more onerous, notwithstanding the increased quantities produced. The following are the quantities of leading articles exported from the island for the last five years:

EXPORTS OF PRODUCE FROM CUBA.

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.
Sugar.....boxes	987,742	1,274,811	1,228,718	1,090,884	1,249,663	1,437,056
Rum.....pipes	9,033	19,432	16,339	11,640	11,825	10,168
Molasses.....hhds	203,597	252,840	228,726	246,570	269,044	400,000
Coffee.....qtls	204,415	233,038	173,534	219,284	130,035	117,032
Tobacco..... "	88,260	98,195	62,756	40,191	79,784	75,791

Almost the sole increase in these productions is in sugar, and the chief market for that production is the United States. The following are the importations into the United States, compared with the Cuba production, assuming 400 lbs. to the box:

	Cuba product lbs.	Cuba imp't into U. S. lbs.	Cuba export to other countries lbs.
1846	395,096,800	61,624,973	333,471,827
1847	509,924,400	169,274,024	340,650,376
1848	491,487,200	174,979,362	316,507,838
1849	436,353,600	179,754,020	256,599,580
1850	499,845,200	127,767,543	372,077,657
1851	574,822,400	275,327,497	299,494,903
Total 6 yrs	2,907,529,600	968,727,419	1,918,802,181

In 1846 the United States took less than one-fifth of the quantity sent to other countries, and for the six years averaged about one half as much, but in the year 1851 they took one half the whole quantity, notwithstanding a very large production in the United States, reaching for the present year, 257,128,000 lbs. Cuba in 1851 exported to the United States as much of her chief product as she did to all the rest of the world. It is evident from this fact alone that neither the island nor the Spanish Government can afford to lose such a customer. All that makes Cuba valuable to the court of Madrid is the money that can be extracted from it, and the amount of that money depends upon the quantity of sugar that the United States purchase. Yet the chances are that she will lose that market as she lost the coffee market, by perseverance in a system of taxes, which might have answered a century ago, when Cuba had an entire monopoly, but which are simply insane in the present state of commercial intercourse throughout the world. We may take an actual transaction to illustrate the impossibility of continued intercourse—thus a person ships, say 200 bbls. of flour, costing $5 50, or $1,100, to Cuba, with orders to invest the amount in coffee for return; the accounts will stand thus:

Sale of 200 bbls. flour at $17		$3,400
Charges—		
Duty	$2,020	
Freight	157	
Landing and cooperage	14	
Commission 2½ per cent	44	
		2,235
Proceeds		$1,165
Invested in 100 bags coffee, 16,470 lbs, at $5 per 100 lbs		$823 50
Invested in bags, 5 rials each		62 50
		$886 00
Charges—		
Export duty, 6¾ cents per 100 lbs	$104 01⅛	
Brokerage ¼ per cent	4 03⅛	
Marking, weighing and carting	12 04	
Bills lading	1 00	
		122 01
		$1,008 01
Commission 2½ per cent		25 01⅛
Net		$1,033 02½

Out of an investment of $1,000 in the United States, the Cuba government gets $2,124 31, or very nearly 200 per cent. taxes. Take now the comparative production of Cuba and Brazil, and the quantity bought of each by the United States.

	1838		1851	
	Product.	Sold to U. States.	Product.	Sold to U. States.
Cuba..... lbs	40,261,025	33,051,061	11,703,200	2,099,084
Brazil..... "	170,208,800	27,411,986	303,556,960	107,578,257

Thus, Cuba has lost a trade which the Brazils have gained. Coffee has been in all this time free of duty in the United States, and the Cuba sales have perished under the weight of Cuban taxes. In relation to sugar, the diminished duty in the United States under the present tariff, served to open a market for the increased products of the island, at a time when the growth of beet-sugar on the Continent, and the increase of East India sugar, counteracted the diminution in the West India supply cut off through emancipation, &c. The production of sugar now in St. Domingo, the British West Indies, Brazil and United States, is receiving a more regular development, and with it the dependence of Cuba upon the United States for a market will gradually become more marked, and the present commercial system cannot be maintained. The position of the island is in some degree analogous to the manufacturing sections of England—as long as they had the monopoly of supplying the world with manufactures they could afford to tax the producer to any extent, for the benefit of the government, and other classes. As soon, however, as other countries began to rival her manufactures, it became necessary to reduce the cost of manufacture by removing taxes. Cuba is losing her monopoly in tropical produce, and can no longer afford to pay over $30,000,000 per annum for the support of the Spanish throne. On purely economical principles, the continuance of Spanish authority in Cuba much longer is impossible. The

cessation or modification of that authority will develop the same state of things as at the north. If Canada and Cuba do not send representatives to Congress, and thus enter politically into the Union, they must, in spite of themselves, enter commercially into the Union by free trade reciprocity.—*U. S. Economist.*

COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA.—*From the Statistics and Tables of C. G. Childs, Esq.*—Pennsylvania contains an area of 46,000 square miles, of which upwards of 15,000 square miles, or about one third part of the state, is coal lands, principally lying above or near the water level. England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland combined, according to the best authorities, contain only 11,000 square miles of coal, in an area of 120,000 square miles of territory. This coal in many cases lies from 900 to 1,800 feet below the surface of the ground, and is raised by machinery. In relation to the quantity of iron ore, nearly the same relative proportions exist between Great Britain and Pennsylvania. It will thus be seen that in these articles of the first necessity, and indispensable to a state of civilization, our state possesses three times as much as all Great Britain.

If to the anthracite coal trade of Pennsylvania, the bituminous coal mined in the state be added, (believed to exceed 1,300,000 of tons in 1851,) the total quantity would be about 6,300,000 tons, worth at tide water $3 40 per ton, and we have a total of TWENTY MILLIONS OF DOLLARS as the value of our coal trade for the year 1851.

Table showing the Quantity of Anthracite Coal sent to Market annually, from its commencement in 1820 to 1850, inclusive.

Years.	Total Lehigh. Tons.	Schuylkill. Tons.	Little Schuylk'l. Tons.	Total Schuylk'l. Tons.	Lackawanna. Tons.	Pine Grove. Tons.	Lykens' Valley. Tons.	Shamokin. Tons.	Wyoming. Tons.	Total Supply. Tons.
1820	365	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	365
1821	1,073	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1,073
1822	2,441	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2,440
1823	5,023	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5,823
1824	9,541	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	9,541
1825	28,396	6,500	....	6,500	....	....	....	....	....	34,896
1826	31,280	16,767	....	16,767	....	....	....	....	....	48,047
1827	32,074	31,360	....	31,360	....	....	....	....	....	63,434
1828	30,232	47,284	....	47,284	....	....	....	....	....	77,516
1829	25,110	79,972	....	79,972	7,000	....	....	....	....	112,083
1830	41,750	89,984	....	89,984	42,700	....	....	....	....	176,734
1831	40,986	81,854	....	81,854	54,000	....	....	....	....	170,890
1832	75,000	195,271	14,000	209,271	84,500	....	....	....	....	368,771
1833	123,000	216,210	36,761	252,971	111,777	....	....	....	....	487,748
1834	106,244	191,540	35,152	226,692	43,700	....	....	....	....	376,636
1835	131,250	302,024	37,494	339,518	98,845	5,500	....	....	....	575,103
1836	146,522	393,375	38,070	432,045	104,500	9,978	5,439	....	....	698,484
1837	225,937	491,230	31,922	523,152	115,387	16,726	6,430	....	....	887,632
1838	214,211	421,569	12,306	433,875	76,321	16,665	6,005	4,104	....	746,181
1839	222,042	333,927	8,249	442,176	122,300	19,227	5,372	11,930	....	823,470
1840	225,591	433,263	19,028	452,291	148,470	19,463	5,302	15,928	....	867,045
1841	142,807	543,280	41,412	584,692	192,270	15,306	6,176	22,154	....	964,255
1842	271,913	491,602	26,831	541,504	205,253	31,437	161	10,098	47,346	1,107,732
1843	267,125	647,306	30,005	677,313	227,605	22,879	....	9,870	57,740	1,262,532
1844	376,363	782,070	58,309	840,379	251,005	27,719	....	13,087	114,906	1,023,459
1845	430,993	1,008,901	76,122	1,085,023	266,072	31,208	....	10,135	178,401	2,002,877
1846	522,518	1,150,828	86,155	1,236,983	318,400	55,346	....	12,646	188,003	2,333,494
1847	643,568	1,467,499	105,345	1,572,844	388,200	61,233	....	14,904	289,898	2,970,597
1848	680,193	1,490,209	162,625	1,652,834	434,267	56,938	2,000	19,357	237,271	3,082,860
1849	800,987	1,428,156	174,757	1,605,626	454,240	78,299	25,000	19,658	258,080	3,241,890
1850	722,688	1,500,047	211,960	1,712,007	543,886	62,809	35,000	19,921	275,109	3,371,420
1851	989,251	1,868,277	310,307	*2,178,584	788,485	†00,000	53,150	23,989	336,018	‡4,389,476

MOBILE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, 1851, 1852.

	Exports			Imports		
1851.	Am. vessels.	For. Vessels.	Total.	Dutiable.	Free.	Total.
1st Quarter	$4,197,492	$1,596,480	$5,723,972	$101,632	$23,223	$124,855
2d Quarter	3,510,716	2,217,051	5,727,767	105,024	7,600	112,624
3d Quarter	1,194,197	367,554	1,561,751	75,431	1,800	77,231
4th Quarter	1,104,329	437,546	1,541,876	138,146	168,036	306,182
Total, 1851			$14,555,366			$620,892
1852.						
1st Quarter	$4,346,358	$3,555,969	$7,902,327	$178,721	$5,776	$184,500
2d Quarter	3,745,493	2,637,088	6,382,581	99,890	35,115	135,005
Total, Jan. 1, to Aug. 31, 1852			$14,248,908			$319,505

This shows a very remarkable increase in the business of that port. The exports are of course, mostly, if not altogether cotton, and the details for the year ending August 1st, as follows:

* By Reading Rail-road to Dec. 27. † Enlarging Union Canal.
‡ Including 20,000 tons from the Dauphin Mine.

COTTON EXPORTS FROM MOBILE FOR THE YEARS ENDING AUGUST 31, 1851-52.

	1851			1852		
	Bales.	Pounds.	Value.	Bales.	Pounds.	Value.
To Great Britain in—						
U. States vessels	129,980	64,975,117	$4,998,308 14	145,357	71,697,340	$7,640,647 39
British "	176,022	87,636,256	6,026,174 51	102,830	50,695,190	5,621,146 45
Bremen "	...	...	...	1,710	839,780	106,726 41
Total to G. Britain	306,002	152,611,383	$11,024,482 65	249,897	123,232,310	$13,368,520 25
France—						
U. States vessels	95,690	49,751,594	$3,921,955 00	44,414	21,907,308	$2,365,249 00
French "	2,063	1,006,216	29,143 33	1,046	518,866	68,111 23
Total to France	97,753	50,757,810	$3,971,098 33	45,460	22,426,174	$2,433,360 23
Spain—						
U. States vessels	102	43,608	$3,561 00	...	...	...
Spanish "	5,469	2,563,052	236,693 65	13,945	6,743,337	876,630 10
Total to Spain	5,571	2,606,660	$240,254 65	13,945	6,743,337	$876,630 10
Russia	2,009	981,434	$84,853 67	1,560	747,070	$82,709 36
Holland	2,635	1,359,733	98,554 53	800	390,326	22,041 97
Belgium	4,182	2,082,092	161,095 17	2,554	1,264,814	164,019 99
Sardinia	8,478	4,183,132	229,951 71	3,896	1,960,621	213,290 79
Sweden	741	362,982	39,266 61	1,230	606,636	59,598 86
Mexico	3,475	1,521,110	116,367 74	2,491	1,244,743	142,571 40
Total to other foreign ports	21,520	10,490,483	$820,111 43	12,471	6,214,210	694,232 37
Grand total	430,846	216,466,336	$16,655,947 06	321,777	158,616,031	$17,572,742 95

In relation to this table the Planters' Prices Current remarks, "The shipments to foreign ports are 430,846 bales, weighing 216,466,336 pounds, and valued at $16,655,947 06. The average weight of the bales is 502 pounds. The cost price per bale averages $38 65, and the average cost per pound is 7¾ cents. The crop of South Alabama at this estimate, amounts to twenty-one millions of dollars, and the crop of the country, which may be set down at about 3,000,000 bales, will amount to $115,950,000."

Also, after remarking upon local improvements, it says: "In addition to these local evidences of improvement, we have to notice an undertaking to increase the facilities of our commerce, in the establishment of a line of ocean steamers, to run between this city and New-York, the first ship of which has been completed and may be expected to arrive here in a few days; so that, when our great rail-road enterprise, which with giant strides is pushing on to the valley of the Ohio, shall be accomplished, we shall find a concentration of facilities here, that cannot fail to make our little city an emporium worthy the intelligent, industrious and wealthy population, spread over the fertile regions that border our noble rivers, and who look to this place as a market."

The quarterly exports from Mobile as compared with New-Orleans, for six quarters, have been as follows:

	Mobile.			*New-Orleans.*		
1851.	U. S. Vessels.	For. Vessels.	Total.	U. S. Vessels.	For. Vessels.	Total.
1st Quarter	4,197,492	1,596,480	5,723,972	11,431,425	7,692,659	19,124,084
2d Quarter	3,510,716	2,217,051	5,727,767	12,529,388	3,449,907	15,979,295
3d Quarter	1,194,197	367,554	1,561,751	4,058,085	1,302,995	5,361,080
4th Quarter	1,104,329	437,547	1,541,876	8,936,420	969,215	9,905,645
Total, 1851			$14,555,366			$50,370,105
1852.						
1st Quarter	4,346,356	2,555,969	7,902,327	8,542,789	7,478,048	16,020,837
2d Quarter	3,745,493	3,637,088	6,382,581	11,931,884	4,856,751	16,788,635
Total			$14,284,908			$32,809,472

This result shows an increased business in favor of Mobile for the first six months of the present year, but the increasing business of New-Orleans, from the vast resources of the Mississippi, raise the figures of her trade, perhaps, beyond the real interest of the city in it; that of Mobile, on the other hand, shows the growing wealth of the rich country watered by her noble rivers, and of which she is the commercial centre.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Our article upon this state was prepared some years ago, and therefore does not show her present wealth and resources. The reader will, however, find under the heads of Boston, Rail-roads, United States Population, Fisheries, Commerce, etc., a great many additional and later facts of great value. To these we append a few others.

COMMON SCHOOLS OF MASSACHUSETTS, 1st JAN., 1852.

The following valuable statistics are taken from the Fifteenth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education, compiled December, 1851:

Number of towns in the Commonwealth, which have made returns	320		
Number of public schools	3,987;	increase,	109
Number of scholars of all ages in all the public schools in summer	179,497;	"	3,153
In winter	199,420;	"	5,026
Average attendance in all the public schools in summer	132,422;	"	3,607
In winter	152,564;	"	2,955

Number of persons under 5 years of age attending public schools	17,757 ;	decrease,	25
Number over 15 years of age attending public schools	20,996 ;	increase,	2,788
Number of persons between 5 and 15 years in the counties	196,536 ;	"	3,304
Number of teachers in summer and winter—			
Males	2,432 ;	decrease,	10
Females	6,263 ;	increase,	274
Number of different persons employed as teachers during the year	6,991 ;	"	256
Average length of the schools, 7 months and 14 days.			
Average wages paid per month, including value of board, males			$36 29
Average wages paid per month, including value of board, females			15 25
Amount of money raised by taxes for the support of schools, including only the wages of teachers, board, and fuel	$915,839 53 ;	increase,	$51,171 68
Amount of board and fuel, and money voluntarily contributed for public schools	39,652 07 ;	"	4,947 76
Amount of money appropriated to schools, as income of local funds			34,372 92
Aggregate expended on public schools, for wages, fuel, and superintendence	10,212,775 66 ;	increase,	63,274 23
Amount raised for taxes, for each child between 5 and 15	4 71 ;	"	per child 19
Number of incorporated academies returned			69
Average number of scholars	4,134 ;	increase,	437
Aggregate paid for tuition			$65,612 65
Number of private schools	783 ;	decrease,	60
Estimated average number of scholars			16,658
Estimated aggregate amount paid for tuition			$266,312 32
Amount expended on public and private schools and academies, exclusive of the cost of repairing and erecting school edifices			1,353,700 63
The law requires each town to raise by tax, at least $1 50 per child, between 5 and 15, as a condition of receiving a share of the income of the State School Fund.			
Number of towns that have raised $1 50, or more, for each child between 5 and 15, according to returns			138
Number of towns that have raised less than $1 50 for each child between 5 and 15, which have made returns			2
Number of towns that have raised twice this sum, ($3) or more, per child between 5 and 15			173
Increase for the year			11

BIRTHS, MARRIAGES AND DEATHS IN MASSACHUSETTS.—According to a law of this state every city and town is required to make an annual return of the births, marriages and deaths to the Secretary of State.

Births.—"The whole number of births in the commonwealth, between January 1st and December 31st, 1850, was 27,664 ; in 1849, 25,773 ; being an increase of 1891, or 7.34 per cent. Of this number, 8,197 were of foreign parentage, against 6,480 in the year preceding ; and there were 3,278 whose parentage was not stated, which is an improvement upon the last report, in which 4,235 births were not specified in this particular. It will be observed that a large proportion of the births of foreign parentage occurs in our cities or manufacturing towns. For instance, the whole number of births in Boston was 5,279, of which 3,340 were of foreign parentage ; in Lowell, 488 American to 452 foreign ; Fall River, 145 American to 164 foreign. Instances of this kind might be multiplied.

Marriages.—"The number of marriages for the year 1850, was 10,345 ; showing the unprecedented increase of 3,409, or nearly 50 per cent. over the preceding year. This large increase is in part owing to the returns being more full and complete ; but it cannot be doubted that the late alteration in the law, concerning marriages, has helped to swell the returns of matrimonial alliances within the state. The number of marriages in Boston in 1849 was 1,187 ; in 1850, 2,467, being an increase of 1,280, or more than 100 per cent.

Deaths.—"The year 1850 was not marked by the prevalence of any particular disease or classes of diseases, and in this respect contrasts strongly with the preceding year. The number of deaths in 1850 was 3,817 less than in 1849, and this difference is mostly accounted for by the extraordinary prevalence of certain diseases in the latter year.

"It is gratifying to observe that while the births and marriages have increased, the deaths have greatly decreased The whole number of deaths in 1849 was 20,423 ; in 1850, 16,606 ; being a decrease of 3,817, or 18.69 per cent.

TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

MOLASSES.—The product of molasses from the last cane crop was, according to the statement of Mr. P. A. Champomier, unusually large, in proportion to the yield of sugar, it being estimated at seventy gallons per 1,000 lbs., against fifty gallons the season previous. Thus the whole product is set down at 18,300,000 gallons, against 10,500,000 gallons the season previous. The increased yield is attributed to the immature condition of the cane, the ripening of which was retarded by the late rains. Notwithstanding this very material addition to the supply, however, prices generally have been very well maintained, as will be seen on reference to the annexed table, which exhibits the highest and lowest points in each month, for sales on the levee in barrels :

	Highest		Lowest	
September..cents per gal.	25	*a* 30	23	*a* 30
October	23	*a* 30	20	*a* 28
November	26	*a* 27	22½	*a* 23½
December	22¾	*a* 24¼	17	*a* 21
January	17	*a* 21	15	*a* 20½
February	20	*a* 25	15	*a* 21
March	15	*a* 26	14	*a* 25
April	18	*a* 27	15	*a* 26
May	24	*a* 28½	20	*a* 28
June	23	*a* 28	20	*a* 28
July	18	*a* 28	15	*a* 28
August	18	*a* 28	18	*a* 28

TOBACCO.—TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.—At the commencement of the commercial year which has just closed, the stock of tobacco in this port (including all on shipboard not cleared) was 23,871 hhds., of which about 10,000 hhds. were in the hands of factors, the remainder being composed of strips and lugs for forwarding, and of parcels which had changed hands, and were awaiting opportunity for shipment.

The quotations given in our last annual statement were, for *Frosted*, 2½ *a* 3 ; *Lugs*, factory, none ; Planters' ditto, 3¼ *a* 5 ; *Leaf*, inferior to common, 5½ *a* 6 ; fair to fine, 6½ *a* 7 ; choice and selections, 6½ *a* 9 per lb. From the 1st September to the close of December the demand was moderately fair, the arrivals during that time being about 5,000 hhds., while the sales exceeded 10,000 hhds. In prices there was a downward tendency from the middle of October, and on the 31st December our quotations were, for *Frosted*, 2 *a* 2¾ ; *Lugs*, factory, none ; Planters' ditto, 3 *a* 4 ; *Leaf*, inferior to common, 4½ *a* 5 ; fair to fine, 5½ *a* 6 ; choice and selections, 6½ *a* 7 cents per lb.

The first hogshead of the *new crop* reached here on the 18th October, and in January some few par-

cels of new came to market, and found buyers at rates ¼ *a* ⅜ a cent below the closing figures of December; but it was not until the middle of March that any considerable arrivals took place. From that time until the end of April the receipts were on a pretty liberal scale, and the demand at the same time was fair, and was freely met by factors generally. In this period buyers gradually obtained some further advantage in prices, and on the 1st May we quoted, for *Lugs*, factory, 2 *a* 2¼; Planters' ditto, 3 *a* 3¼; *Leaf*, inferior to common, 3¾ *a* 4¼; fair to fine, 4½ *a* 5; choice and selections, 5½ *a* 6 cents per lb. Early in May a number of buyers who had previously held aloof entered the market, and an active demand sprung up, which continued unabated for some sixty days, the sales in that time reaching nearly 30,000 hhds. The consequences of these exceedingly heavy transactions were that the stock on the market (notwithstanding the unusual extent of the receipts) was reduced to a very moderate quantity, and that prices gradually improved, until at the commencement of July our figures were advanced to the following range; *Lugs*, factory, 2¼ *a* 3¼; Planters' 3½ *a* 4; *Leaf*, inferior to common, 4½ *a* 4¾; fair to fine, 5 *a* 5¾; choice and selections, 6 *a* 7 cents per lb. At about these rates some 6,000 hhds. changed hands during July, the demand being fair, though not animated, and the stock on sale being too limited to admit of any very extensive operations. During the past month the inquiry has been more brisk, and the sales reported embrace some 6,500 hhds., including some parcels which had previously changed hands, and were re-sold. Under the influence of this improved demand prices have again taken a start upward within the past three weeks, and we now quote, for *Lugs*, factory, 3 *a* 3¾; Planters' ditto, 3½ *a* 4½; *Leaf*, inferior to common, 4¾ *a* 5¼; fair to fine, 5½ *a* 6; choice and selections, 6¼ *a* 7½ cents per lb. We close our tables with a stock in port of 18,831 hhds., though the quantity immediately on sale is estimated not to exceed 4,000 hhds. It may be proper to remark, however, that in addition to this amount there are probably 6,000 to 8,000 hhds. held in second hand, which may, in certain contingencies, be again placed upon the market. The total receipts at this port since 1st September, as shown by our tables, are 89,675 hhds., which amount includes 11,740 hhds. strips and 2,118 hhds. stems. The quantity inspected since 1st September is 64,045 hhds., of which 5,615 hhds. were Mason county.

Early in the season it was very generally known that the crop would certainly be a large one, and in view of the experience of previous years as to the effect of a heavy accumulation of stock upon our market, a majority, both of shippers in the country and of factors here, were in favor of speedy sales. This course has been generally pursued, and its advantages have been fully made manifest. The extent of our receipts (which would have been several thousand hogsheads greater but for the low stage of water in the rivers above for several weeks past) shows that the estimates of the crop were about correct. Its quality, however, was probably overestimated, as the reports received from the interior last fall led to the expectation of something unusually fine, whereas the receipts from most sections have been decidedly below the average quality of former years. And here again we take the liberty to call the attention of planters to the necessity, if they would protect their own interest, and the interest of the trade generally, of bestowing more care upon the *handling*, *sorting* and *prizing* of their crops. Their negligence in these particulars has been matter of serious complaint for some years past.

With regard to the growing crop, we have briefly to remark that the accounts received thus far have been of a decidedly discouraging character. Complaints of scarcity of plants, of want of proper seasons for planting, and of long continued drought since the planting was made, have been very general, and we hear of no section of the tobacco growing region (unless it may be Missouri) in which anything like an average crop is expected. It is quite too early, however, to determine what the extent of the crop is likely to be, and at a later period we may take occasion again to advert to its prospects.

WESTERN PRODUCE.—TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.—In this department of our trade there is embraced a vast variety of products, which contribute largely to the value of our commerce with the interior, but our limited space will only permit us to review briefly the course of the market in a few of the most prominent articles. There has been some increase in the supply of breadstuffs, as compared with last year, and the average of prices has been lower. The receipts of flour are 927,212 barrels, against 941,106 last year, and of Indian corn they are equal to 3,750,000 bushels, against 3,300,000 bushels last year. Of wheat the supply has been light, and the receipts, which have been mostly to go forward to Alabama, Georgia, &c., have only reached 130,000 bushels, against 180,000 bushels last year. The few sales that have taken place have been at the extreme range of 65 *a* 85 cents, though mostly at about 70 cents per bushel. Of corn meal there has been received only 2,514 barrels, against 3,662 barrels last year. The total exports of flour since 1st September amount to 544,711 barrels, against 583,418 barrels to same date last year. Of this quantity, 138,569 barrels were shipped to Great Britain, 70,445 to West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. Of Indian corn, the total exports have been equal to 2,182,000 bushels, against 1,300,000 bushels last year. Of this quantity 382,000 were shipped to Great Britain and Ireland, 122,000 to the West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. The following tables will indicate the course of prices for flour and corn, as they present the highest and lowest points of the market in each month, the range being according to quality.

PRICES OF FLOUR, NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.

	Highest	Lowest
September per bbl.	$3 50 *a* 5 00	$3 37½ *a* 4 75
October	3 75 *a* 5 00	3 40 *a* 4 50
November	3 55 *a* 4 75	3 40 *a* 4 50
December	3 90 *a* 4 75	3 55 *a* 4 37½
January	4 00 *a* 5 50	3 60 *a* 5 37½
February	4 25 *a* 5 12½	4 00 *a* 4 50
March	4 25 *a* 4 50	3 75 *a* 4 25
April	3 75 *a* 4 12½	3 30 *a* 3 90
May	3 60 *a* 3 80	3 25 *a* 3 75
June	3 80 *a* 4 37½	3 45 *a* 4 12½
July	3 75 *a* 4 25	3 50 *a* 3 87½
August	3 75 *a* 5 00	3 50 *a* 3 87½

PRICES OF CORN IN SACKS, NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.

	Highest	Lowest
September....cents per bushel	35 *a* 56	32 *a* 55
October	40 *a* 58	33 *a* 42
November	48 *a* 52	33 *a* 43
December	50 *a* 56	41 *a* 46
January	54 *a* 57	44 *a* 47
February	51 *a* 54	46 *a* 50
March	50 *a* 54	42 *a* 46
April	48 *a* 50	42 *a* 46
May	47 *a* 52	40 *a* 47
June	48 *a* 52	45 *a* 52
July	50 *a* 62	48 *a* 52
August	52 *a* 60	48 *a* 51

The annexed table shows the exports of breadstuffs from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland since 1st September, compared with the same period last year.

	1851-2.	1850-51.
Flour....barrels	1,359,882	1,370,643
Corn meal	1,750	5,553
Wheat....bushels	1,520,307	1,286,630
Corn	1,547,383	2,197,253

With respect to the supply of breadstuffs for the coming year, it is likely to be most ample; for it is understood that the yield throughout the country has been more generally abundant than in any previous year, at least for a long period. Even in the Southern States, where the grain crops have been almost a total failure for two years in succession, the harvest is ample, and large sections of country,

which have depended upon the West for supplies, are likely to have a surplus to send to market. The crops of Europe, also, are generally represented as giving favorable promise, and the probabilities would seem to indicate a lower range of prices than the American farmer has realized for some years past.

The article of pork has presented unusual interest the past season. It was declared that there was a further deficiency in the supply of hogs, as compared with the previous year, while it was evident that the consumption was rapidly on the increase, as the increase of population was large and constant, besides which the failure of the corn crops at the South had involved at the same time the failure of the usual home supply of pork, and on these considerations the market for hogs opened in the West at what appeared, to some at least, to be high prices. The sequel, however, has sustained the views of the purchasers, though we doubt whether any one anticipated so high a range of prices as the market has attained within the past few months, a range that has scarcely been approached since 1838. In beef there has been some increase of supply, but prices, nevertheless, have ranged considerably higher than last year. The following tables show the highest and lowest points of the market in each month.

PRICES OF PORK AT NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.

	Mess.		Prime.	
	Highest per barrel.	Lowest per barrel.	Highest per barrel.	Lowest per barrel.
September	$16 50 a 17 00	$16 00 a 16 50	$15 00 a 16 00	$15 00 a 15 50
October	15 25 a 16 00	14 00 a 14 50	14 50 a ..	13 00 a ..
November	14 75 a 15 00	13 50 a 14 25	13 50 a ..	13 00 a ..
December	14 50 a 15 00	12 50 a 13 50	12 00 a 12 75	10 75 a 11 50
January	15 00 a 15 50	13 75 a 13 75	13 50 a ..	12 00 a 12 75
February	15 50 a 15 75	14 87½ a 15 25	13 50 a ..	13 25 a ..
March	16 50 a 17 00	15 00 a 15 50	14 00 a ..	13 25 a ..
April	17 75 a 18 00	16 50 a 16 75	15 00 a ..	13 50 a 13 75
May	17 25 a 17 62½	16 75 a 17 00	15 00 a 15 50	14 50 a ..
June	20 00 a 21 00	17 00 a 17 50	18 00 a ..	15 00 a 15 50
July	20 00 a 21 00	19 75 a 20 50	18 00 a ..	18 00 a ..
August	21 50 a 22 50	21 00 a 22 00	18 25 a ..	18 25 a ..

PRICES OF BEEF.

	Mess.		Prime.	
	Highest per barrel.	Lowest per barrel.	Highest per barrel.	Lowest per barrel.
September	$14 50 a 15 00	$14 50 a 15 00	$11 50 a 12 50	$10 50 a 11 00
October	14 50 a 15 00	14 00 a 15 00	11 50 a 12 50	11 50 a 12 50
November	14 50 a 15 00	14 00 a 14 50	11 00 a 12 00	11 00 a 12 00
December	12 00 a 13 00	11 00 a 12 00	9 50 a 10 00	7 00 a 7 75
January	11 00 a 12 00	11 00 a 11 50	7 50 a 8 00	7 50 a 7 75
February	11 00 a 12 00	11 00 a 12 00	7 50 a 8 00	7 50 a 7 75
March	13 00 a 13 50	12 00 a ..	9 00 a 9 25	7 50 a 8 00
April	13 00 a 13 50	13 00 a 13 50	9 50 a 9 75	9 00 a 9 25
May	13 25 a 14 00	13 00 a 13 50	10 00 a 11 00	9 50 a 9 75
June	14 00 a 14 50	13 25 a 14 00	13 00 a 13 75	10 00 a 11 00
July	14 50 a 15 00	14 00 a 14 50	13 00 a 13 75	13 00 a 13 50
August	14 50 a 15 00	14 50 a 15 00	13 00 a 13 50	13 00 a 13 50

The receipts of lard have rather exceeded those of last year, but the average of prices has been about the same. The total exports since 1st September (all packages being reduced to kegs) are equal to 792,543 kegs, against 738,956 kegs last year. Of this quantity, 222,594 kegs were exported to foreign ports, against 188,353 kegs last year, Great Britain taking 61,923 kegs, against 41,663 last year. The course of the market will be observed by reference to the annexed table, which shows the highest and lowest points in each month, the lowest figures being for inferior in barrels, and the highest for prime in kegs.

PRICES OF LARD, NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-52.

	Highest	Lowest
September.....cents per lb.	8½ a 12½	8½ a 12
October	8½ a 12	8 a 10½
November	8 a 10½	6½ a 9
December	6½ a 8¾	6½ a 8
January	6½ a 9¾	5 a 8¼
February	6 a 9¾	5 a 9¼
March	7 a 9¾	6 a 9¾
April	7 a 11	6¾ a 9¾
May	6¾ a 11	6¾ a 11
June	8 a 10¾	7 a 10¾
July	8 a 11½	8 a 8¾
August	10 a 13	10 a 12

LEAD.—The discovery of gold in California has greatly interfered with the production of this article, and our receipts the past year have fallen to 267,504 pigs, which is the lowest amount since 1837. Our largest receipts were 765,000 pigs in 1840-7. The great bulk of the receipts has been forwarded to the Northern cities, the sales in this market scarcely reaching 20,000 pigs for the entire season. The extreme range of prices has been $3 75 per 100 lbs. in October, and $4 70 in June, when it was shipped freight free. The total exports since 1st September are 256,939 pigs, against 320,608 pigs last year.

HEMP.—There has been a further reduction in the supply of this article, the receipts since 1st September being 17,140 bales, against 25,116 bales last year. As in the case of lead, nearly all that is received is sent forward, only occasional parcels being offered for sale in this market, and those generally of an inferior quality. Under these circumstances very few sales have taken place here during the past season, and those mostly of limited parcels, at an extreme range of $85 a $95 per ton for dew-rotted. The exports since 1st September are 15,728 bales, all to Northern ports.

COFFEE.—This article has rapidly risen in importance in our market, and may now be said to take the lead among our foreign imports. The first direct cargo from Rio was in 1835, and up to 1840 the imports only amounted to 44,000 bags, while in the same year we received from Cuba, &c., 91,000 bags. The following table, which shows the direct imports from Rio de Janeiro in each year for ten years, will exhibit the rapid increase in this branch of our foreign trade, and will also establish the interesting fact, that this is now the largest market in the world (out of Brazil) for Rio coffee.

1842—Import at New-Orleans	bags	126,210
1843	"	"	85,438
1844	"	"	161,082
1845	"	"	167,669
1846	"	"	215,031
1847	"	"	205,111
1848	"	"	239,371
1849	"	"	299,120
1850	"	"	225,013
1851	"	"	274,690
1852	"	"	353,616

The market during the past season has been characterized by more steadiness than we have had occasion to notice for some years previous, but the increased supply has reduced the average of prices, which have fluctuated between 7 cents in December and January, and 9¾ cents in April, as the highest and lowest points. The following table, which we take from the annual circular of Mr. H. T. Lonsdale, Coffee Broker, shows the monthly sales and average prices for the year ended July 1st, 1852. By this it will be seen that the average price of the season for Rio coffee has been 8 60-100 cents per lb., while the year previous it was 10 18-100 cents.

	Bags	Price
1851—July	20,613	8:55-100
August	6,931	8:94
September	10,973	8:29
October	25,992	7:89
November	47,904	8:24
December	20,473	8:20
1852—January	53,014	7:87
February	52,169	8:60
March	48,337	9:12
April	34,301	9:31
May	39,198	9:22
June	42,278	8:73
	402,191	8:60-100

The above sales include the transactions from importers' and speculators' hands, and exceed the quantity taken for consumption by about 30,000 bags.

The following table shows the imports, stock, etc.:

Estimated stock out of grocers' hands on 1st Sept., 1851, of all kinds	bags, 4,000
Imports direct from—	
Rio de Janeiro	353,616
Cuba, Laguira, &c	12,525—366,141
Received Coastwise for sale (estimated)	55,000
Making a supply of	425,141
Total supply last year	353,557
Increase	71,284

In the direct imports from Rio de Janeiro there is an increase, as compared with last year, of 78,926 bags. There is also an increase of 2,158 bags in the imports from Cuba, &c., and of 18,800 bags in the receipts coastwise for sale. The present stock of all kinds, out of grocers' hands, is estimated at 35,000 bags, which would leave 390,141 bags as the quantity taken for the consumption of the West and South, against 379,757 bags last year; or an increase of 40,384 bags. The quantity of Rio Coffee taken for consumption in the whole United States during the past year is estimated at 845,000 bags, of which nearly one half was furnished through this market, where the aggregate of sales for the year has been over *six millions of dollars*. In a statement published in the Baltimore American, said to be from reliable authority, the total produce of all countries for 1852 is put down at 548,000,000 pounds, while the consumption of Europe and the United States, at the present ratio, is estimated at 640,000,000 pounds, which would be equal to 4,000,000 bags Brazil. The stock on the 1st July was estimated at 125,000,000 lbs. for Europe, and 25,000,000 lbs. for the United States.

Our advices from Rio are to the 3d July. The circulars of 30th June (the close of the crop year) state the total exports to be 1,881,559 bags, against 1,869,967 bags the year previous. Of this quantity our own country has taken 952,498 bags, distributed as follows: New-Orleans 346,262, New-York 260,179, Baltimore 207,792, Philadelphia 81,125, Charleston 25,732, Boston 11,758, Mobile 11,261, Savannah 4,369, California 4,020 bags. The few samples of new crop which had been received proved of very fine quality, and the opinion is expressed that the crop will be fully an average one in quantity.

EXCHANGE.—The Exchange market has maintained a good degree of steadiness during the past season, as will be seen by reference to the annexed table, which exhibits the highest and lowest quotations in each month, for sterling, and for bills at sixty days' sight on New-York. These figures are intended to represent the prevailing range of the market, though there have probably been, at most periods, some transactions at rates both above and below them.

Months.	Sterling. Highest per cent. pm.	Sterling. Lowest per cent. pm.	New-York 60 Days. Highest per cent. dis.	New-York 60 Days. Lowest per cent. dis.
September	10 a 11	10 a 11	1⅜ a 2	1¼ a 2⅛
October	10 a 11	6¼ a 8⅛	2 a 2⅛	3 a 3⅛
November	9 a 10	6¼ a 8⅛	1⅜ a 2⅛	2¼ a 3⅛
December	9 a 10¼	8⅛ a 9¾	1⅜ a 2⅛	2 a 2⅝
January	8½ a 9¾	8 a 9	2 a 2½	2½ a 3
February	8½ a 9¼	8 a 9	2 a 2¼	2⅝ a 3
March	8½ a 9½	8¼ a 9¼	1¼ a 1⅝	2 a 2¼
April	8½ a 9¼	8¼ a 8¾	1 a 1¼	1¼ a 1⅜
May	8½ a 9¼	8 a 8¼	1⅛ a 1¼	1¼ a 2
June	9¼ a 10¼	9 a 10	1 a 1¼	1¼ a 1⅝
July	9¼ a 10¼	9⅛ a 10¼	¾ a 1	1 a 1⅛
August	10 a 10¼	9¼ a 10½	¾ a 1	¾ a 1⅛

FREIGHTS.—The freight market has presented considerable fluctuations during the past season, though it has generally been characterized by rather more steadiness than we have had occasion to notice for several years past, the extreme range for Cotton to Liverpool being ⅛d. to ⅝d. per lb. The following table, which shows the highest and lowest rates in each month, for cotton to Liverpool, will sufficiently indicate the course of the market:

	Highest.	Lowest.
September	⅜d.	⅛d.
October	⅝	7-16
November	⅜	7-16
December	⅜	15-32
January	⅜	7-16
February	5-16	13-32
March	5-16	9-16
April	9-16	⅝
May	⅝	9-16
June	⅝	⅜
July	⅝	⅜
August	5-16	⅜

The total number of arrivals from sea since 1st September, 1851, is 2,351, viz: 807 ships, 213 steamships, 371 barks, 287 brigs, and 673 schooners; and

the entries at the custom-house for the year ended 30th June, 1851, were as follows: whole number of vessels 2,266; tonnage, 910,855. The increase, compared with last year, is 212 vessels and 142,827 tons. Included in the arrivals are 412 foreign vessels, from foreign ports, with a total measurement of 185,386 tons. This is an increase on last year of 80 vessels and 48,388 tons.

COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS.—TONNAGE ENTERED.

3d quarter, July to September, 1851.

	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.
American from foreign ports	74	26,187 07
Foreign	30	6,564 47
Coastwise	223	74,347 00
	327	107,098 54

4th quarter, October to December, 1851.

American from foreign ports	170	61,776 86
Foreign	148	70,916 01
Coastwise	386	173,909 15
	704	306,602 07

1st quarter, January to March, 1852.

American from foreign ports	175	82,209 27
Foreign	140	67,039 04
Coastwise	305	110,395 36
	620	259,644 02

2d quarter, April to June, 1852.

American from foreign ports	155	71,946 77
Foreign	95	40,867 08
Coastwise	365	124,695 85
	615	237,509 75

Recapitulation.

Total 3d quarter, 1851	327	107,098 54
4th " "	704	306,602 07
1st " 1852	620	259,644 02
2d " "	615	237,509 75
Total to June, 30th, 1852	2266	910,855 08
Total the year previous	2054	768,028 04
Increase this year	212	142,827,04

TONNAGE CLEARED.

3d quarter, July to September, 1851.

American for foreign ports	105	43,939 13
Foreign	48	16,001 44
Coastwise	187	63,584 07
	340	123,524 64

4th quarter, October to December, 1851.

American for foreign ports	184	96,133 20
Foreign	58	21,414 00
Coastwise	269	94,987 65
	514	212,534 85

1st quarter, January to March, 1852.

American for foreign ports	180	101,406 49
Foreign	173	82,114 83
Coastwise	316	130,282 29
	678	213,803 66

2d quarter, April to June, 1852.

American for foreign ports	240	198,424 54
Foreign	122	56,031 93
Coastwise	308	94,729 84
	670	279,179 41

Recapitulation.

Total 3d quarter, 1851	340	123,524 64
4th " "	514	212,534 85
1st " 1852	678	313,803 66
2d " "	670	279,179 41
Total to June, 30th, 1852	2202	929,042 60
Total the year previous	2107	775,081 60
Increase this year	105	154,960 92

EXPORTS—NEW-ORLEANS, 1851-2.

AMERICAN PRODUCE.

American Vessels to Foreign Countries.

3d quarter, 1851		$4,058,085
4th " "		8,936,430
1st " 1852		8,542,789
2d " "		11,931,884
		33,469,188

Foreign Vessels to Foreign Countries.

3d quarter, 1851		$1,302,995
4th " "		969,215
1st " 1852		7,478,048
2d " "		4,856,751
		14,607,009

Coastwise.

3d quarter, 1851		$4,538,830
4th " "		6,162,449
1st " 1852		11,498,214
2d " "		7,068,879
		28,268,372
Total foreign		48,076,197
Coastwise		28,268,372
Grand total		$76,344,569

FOREIGN PRODUCE.

American Vessels to Foreign Countries.

3d quarter, 1851		$47,332
4th " "		31,805
1st " 1852		60,270
2d " "		66,520
		$205,926

Foreign Vessels to Foreign Countries.

3d quarter, 1851		$ 3,875
4th " "		8,798
1st " 1852		20,950
2d " "		11,157
		44,780
Grand total		$250,716

RECEIPTS BY THE NEW CANAL, NEW-ORLEANS.

Statement of produce received in the New Basin, for the year ending 31st August, 1852. Furnished by Capt. James Stockton.

Cotton—bales	40,650
Lumber—yellow pine and cypress—feet	30,570,000
Wood—oak, ash and pine—cords	28,206
Bricks	19,329,000
Sand—bbls	104,850
Shells—bbls	27,000
Charcoal—bbls	114,360
Tar—bbls	1,872
——kegs	12,066
Shingles	1,844,000
Laths	5,090,000
Staves	150,000
Sash and doors—pairs	13,900
Spirits turpentine—bbls	2,408
Rosin—bbls	11,715
Salt, sacks	33,763
Cotton Gins	319

Hides	3,024
Corn Mills	10
Domestics—bales	1,478
Sheep skins—bales	4
Hay—bales	20
Buckets—dozen	1,006
Tobacco—leaf—boxes	844
Merchandies—boxes	53
Moss—bales	30
Cotton seed—bags	14
Wool—bags	6
Sugar—bbls	870
Molasses—bbls	893
Fish—bbls	130
Camphene—bbls	10
Knees, white and live oak	1,165
Pickets	13,000
Clap boards	165,000
Gunny bags—bales	285
Horned Cattle	123
Paper—bundles	110
Barrels—empty	1,150
Rags—bales	4
Mahogany—logs	20
Deer Skins—bales	16
Almonds—sacks	35
Bottles, empty—casks	17
White oak bark—cords	35
Cedar logs	240
Turpentine, raw—bbls	73

STATEMENT OF COTTON, NEW-ORLEANS.

Stock on hand 1st Sept., 1851	Bales	15390
Arrived since the 27th ultimo	2740	
Arrived previously	1426443	
Total receipts for 12 months	1429183	
Add. made from waste and damaged cotton and samples..estimated,	1000	
		1430183
		1445573
Exported since 27th ultimo	2716	
Exported previously	1431899	
Shipped to western states	1200	
Total exports for 12 months		1435815
Stock on hand 1st Sept., 1852	Bales	9758

STATEMENT OF TOBACCO, NEW-ORLEANS.

Stock on hand 1st Sept., 1851	Hhds	23871
Arrived since the 27th ultimo	1252	
Arrived previously	88423	
Additional hhds. made from samples, repacking, &c	200	
Total receipts for 12 months		89875
Exported since 27th ultimo	1505	113746
Exported previously	92210	
Total exports for 12 months	93715	
City consumption, baling, &c	1200—94915	
Stock on hand 1st Sept., 1852	Hhds.	18831

COMPARATIVE ARRIVALS, EXPORTS, AND STOCKS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO AT NEW-ORLEANS,

For ten years—from 1st September each year.

Years	COTTON—BALES			TOBACCO—HHDS		
	Arrivals	Exports	Stocks	Arr'ls	Exp'ts	Stocks
1851-52	1429183	1435815	9758	69675	93715	18831
1850-51	995036	997456	15390	64020	54501	23871
1849-50	837723	838591	16612	60304	57955	14842
1848-49	1142382	1167303	15480	52335	52896	13293
1847-48	1212805	1201897	37401	55882	60364	14851
1846-47	740669	724508	23493	55568	50376	22336
1845-46	1053633	1054857	6832	72896	62045	17924
1844-45	979238	984616	7556	71493	68679	7673
1843-44	910854	895375	12934	83435	84249	4859
1842-43	1089642	1088870	4700	92509	89891	4873

COMPARATIVE RATES OF EXCHANGE ON LONDON, PARIS AND NEW-YORK.

On the 1st of each month for three years past—sixty day bills.

	1851-2.			1850-1.			1849-50.		
	London	Paris	New-York	London	Paris	New-York	London	Paris	New-York
	pm	per $	dis	pm	per $	dis	pm	per $	dis
Sept.	10⅜	5 12	2	9¾	5 28	1¾	8⅜	5 25	¾
Oct.	10⅜	5 15	2¼	9¾	5 28	1⅝	9¾	5 30	¾
Nov.	7	5 23	3¼	7⅜	5 32	2¼	9⅜	5 28	1¾
Dec.	9¾	5 20	2	8	5 30	1⅝	8	5 32	1¾
Jan.	9⅜	5 20	2¼	7¾	5 28	2⅛	7¾	5 35	1¾
Feb.	8¾	5 25	2¾	7⅜	5 30	2⅝	7⅜	5 30	1¾
Mar.	9	5 22	2¼	7⅛	5 23	2⅝	7⅜	5 32	1¾
April	9	5 22	1⅜	10	5 10	⅝	7⅜	5 35	1¾
May.	8¼	5 25	1⅜	10	5 12	⅞	9¾	5 27	⅞
June.	9⅜	5 20	1⅜	10⅜	5 10	⅝	9¾	5 27	⅞
July.	10¼	5 20	1	10⅜	5 08	1⅛	9¾	5 27	1¾
Aug.	10	5 16	1⅛	9¾	5 10	1⅜	9¾	5 29	⅞

MONTHLY ARRIVALS OF FLATBOATS—NEW-ORLEANS

	Ohio.	Kentucky.	Indiana.	Virginia.	Pennsylvania.	Illinois.	Missouri.	Iowa.	Alabama.	Tennessee.	Mississippi.	Total.
Sep.	3	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	9
Oct.	1	..	1	..	4	2	..	..	..	5	..	13
Nov.	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Dec.	34	..	12	..	2	3	..	..	..	1	2	54
Jan.	58	11	43	6	..	3	..	..	..	3	..	124
Feb.	30	11	20	4	5	..	..	..	..	4	..	83
Mar	88	7	77	..	10	3	..	..	..	30	..	215
Apr.	31	9	109	..	14	20	..	1	..	31	11	226
May	90	26	74	..	30	16	..	..	3	11	2	252
June	7	13	11	..	31	4	..	..	..	85	..	150
July	3	8	5	..	87	..	..	..	..	50	..	153
Aug.	2	3	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	29	..	37
Tot.	357	88	358	10	183	51	1	2	3	250	15	1319

Also about 150 from various states with cattle, sheep, hogs, lumber, &c., making a total of 1,468.

COMPARATIVE RATES OF FREIGHT, NEW-ORLEANS.

On Cotton and Tobacco to Liverpool, Havre and New-York, on the first of each month, for the past two years.

	COTTON—PER POUND					
	1851-52			1850-51		
	Livpl.	Havre	N. Y.	Livpl.	Havre	N. Y.
Sept.	⅜d	⅜ct	⅜ct	7-16d	⅜ct	¼ct
Oct.	7-16	15-16	⅜	7-16	⅜	⅜
Nov.	⅜	1	⅜	⅜	⅜	⅜
Dec.	7-16	⅜	⅜	7-16	⅜	⅜
Jan.	7-16	⅜	⅜	13-32	⅜	⅜
Feb.	7-16	15-16	9-16	9-16	15-16	⅜
March	⅜	⅜	⅜	13-16	1⅜	1
April.	9-16	1⅜	⅜	⅜	⅜	⅜
May.	1-16	1⅜	⅜	⅜	⅜	⅜
June.	⅜	⅜	⅜	⅜	1	⅜
July.	5-16	⅜	⅜	⅜	..	⅜
Aug.	⅜	⅜	⅜	7-16	..	⅜

TOBACCO—PER HOGSHEAD

Sept.	25s 0d	$ ..	$4 50	32s 0d	$7 00	$2 50
Oct.	35 0	8 00	4 00	32 6	7 00	2 00
Nov.	37 6	10 00	..	30 0	..	2 00
Dec.	..	8 00	..	..	..	5 00
Jan.	..	8 00	..	35 0	..	5 00
Feb.	40 0	..	..	..	..	7 00
March	..	..	6 00	..	..	9 00
April	45 0	..	7 00	..	..	5 50
May	..	..	7 75	..	..	6 00
June	35 0	7 00	4 00	35 0	..	6 00
July	30 0	6 75	3 50	35 0	..	4 50
Aug.	30 0	6 75	3 00	25 0	..	4 50

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE, NEW-ORLEANS, DIRECT IMPORTS OF COFFEE, SUGAR AND SALT.

For three years, from September 1 to August 31.

	1851–2	1850–1	49—50
Coffee, Havana.....bags	12525	10367	10627
Coffee, Rio.....bags	353616	274690	225013
Sugar, Havana.....boxes	25673	29293	18843
Salt, Liverpool.....sacks	580106	420838	468932
Salt, Turks Island, &c...bush.	235952	419685	583183

Comparative Prices middling to fair Cottons, Sugar on the Levee, Molasses on the Levee, and Flour at New-Orleans, on the first of each month, from 1st September, 1851, to 31st August, 1852.

	Cotton	Sugar	Molasses	Flour
	cents	cents	cents	dollars
September	9 a 10	2½ a 6¾	25 a 30	3½ a 5
October	8 a 9¼	3½ a 6¾	23 a 30	3½ a 4¾
November	7 a 8¼	3 a 6¾	18 a 27	3¼ a 4¾
December	7¼ a 8¾	2½ a 6	23½ a 24	3¼ a 4¾
January	7½ a 8¾	2 a 5¾	17 a 20½	3½ a 5¾
February	7½ a 8¾	2 a 5¾	15 a 20½	4 a 5¾
March	7¾ a 9	2¼ a 5¾	20 a 25	4¼ a 4¾
April	7¾ a 9	2¼ a 5¾	15 a 26	3¾ a 4¾
May	7¾ a 9¼	2¼ a 5¾	20 a 28	3¼ a 3¾
June	9¼ a ..	2½ a 6	23 a 28	3¾ a 3¾
July	9¼ a ..	3¼ a 6	20 a 28	3¼ a 4¼
August	9½ a ..	3¼ a 6¼	16 a 28	3 a 3¾

IMPORTS OF SPECIE—NEW-ORLEANS.

For five years, from 1st Sep. to 31st Aug.

1851-52	$6,278,562
1850-51	7,937,119
1849-50	3,792,662
1848-9	2,501,250
1847-8	1,845,808

Statement of the Deposits and Coinage at the Branch Mint, New-Orleans, from the 1st of August, 1851, to the 31st July, 1852, inclusive.

GOLD DEPOSITS.

California gold bullion	$5,831,695 22	
Other gold bullion	130,608 79	
Total gold deposits		$5,961,304 01

SILVER DEPOSITS.

Silver extracted from California gold	$36,568 23	
Other silver bullion	105,777 97	
Total silver deposits		142,346 20
Total value of gold and silver deposits		$6,103,650 21
Last year		9,107,722 39

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces	Value
Double eagles	228,000	4,560,000
Eagles	131,500	1,315,000
Half eagles	8,000	40,000
Quarter eagles	98,000	245,000
Gold dollars	210,000	210,000
	675,500	$6,370,000

SILVER COINAGE.

	Pieces	Value
Half dollars	264,000	132,000
Quarter dollars	144,000	36,000
Dimes	320,000	32,000
Half dimes	640,000	32,000
Three-cent pieces	120,000	2,600
	1,488,000	235,600
Total coinage	2,163,000	$ 6,605,600
Last year	5,625,000	10,044,500

NEW-ORLEANS MORTALITY, 1851-52.

From September 1st, 1851, to August 28, inclusive, 1852.—From Dr. Axson's New-Orleans Medical Journal.

Months 1851	Totals	Under ten years	Colored	Zymotics	Nervous system	Respiratory system	Digestive system	Circulatory system	Generative system	Urinary system	Locomotory system	Integumentary system	Age	External causes	Not specified	Stillborn
September	572	201	84	181	119	72	63	6	5	0	1	1	3	30	43	48
October	514	162	56	162	102	60	33	10	0	1	1	0	6	32	50	48
November	501	205	90	223	105	84	44	11	3	0	0	0	4	17	56	43
December	509	200	94	143	78	104	33	14	4	0	1	0	7	13	64	46
January, 1852	486	179	111	97	80	123	30	6	5	0	1	1	11	42	51	30
February	477	155	91	106	83	126	28	14	4	0	0	0	6	22	49	22
March	462	190	73	138	67	93	46	6	5	1	0	0	5	27	45	27
April	502	227	99	146	90	99	51	5	3	1	1	0	7	40	32	35
May	627	290	118	209	112	100	68	6	2	2	1	0	7	30	51	38
June	1163	506	144	737	104	74	101	8	4	2	2	1	6	26	41	36
July	769	301	108	339	126	68	61	2	0	3	1	2	2	67	56	33
August	883	305	141	360	143	125	68	6	0	1	7	1	15	48	63	39
Total deaths	7555	2921	1178	2861	1212	1141	645	97	52	11	17	6	81	396	601	446

SPECIAL FORMS OF DISEASE TABULATED.

Months 1851	Fever	Cholera	Dysentery	Trismus Nascentium	Convulsions	Tetanus	Consumption	Still-born
September	114	5	20	23	42	7	50	14
October	71	8	49	18	28	8	49	15
November	73	78	37	29	27	4	60	24
December	50	28	29	9	19	7	56	29
January, 1852	48	2	17	13	20	7	79	27
February	63	0	20	10	27	4	67	24
March	63	1	26	9	17	6	63	24
April	47	6	21	12	34	2	60	14
May	20	63	42	6	49	4	67	26
June	62	559	24	10	55	4	38	12
July	78	173	21	7	38	10	49	24
August	160	101	44	22	51	3	103	30
Totals	865	1024	359	168	407	65	753	283

ANNUAL STATEMENT OF CHARITY HOSPITAL.

Months 1851	Admissions		Discharges		Deaths	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
September	1701	616	1652	516	109	29
October	1505	470	1359	436	119	25
November	1092	290	1006	323	139	32
December	1150	319	955	272	117	18
January, 1852	1175	343	858	364	115	28
February	1168	404	1052	371	132	33
March	939	323	915	362	113	29
April	690	287	693	282	84	28
May	899	384	703	302	143	60
June	988	422	791	349	142	71
July	1141	367	962	349	100	39
August	1286	507	1163	444	101	90
Total	13675	4752	12199	4431	1413	413

Admissions		Discharges	Deaths
Total number, 18,427		Total, 19,560	Total, 1825.
Of this number admitted there were		natives of the United States	1,754
"	"	natives of foreign countries	16,468
"	"	places of nativity	195

POSTAGE LAW OF 1852.—This law is a liberal advance upon the previous one.

Small newspapers and periodicals, published monthly or oftener, and pamphlets not containing more than sixteen octavo pages each, when sent in single packages, weighing at least eight ounces, to one address, and pre-paid by affixing postage stamps thereto, shall be charged only half of a cent. for each ounce, or fraction of an ounce, notwithstanding the postage calculated on each separate article of such package would exceed that amount. That books, bound or unbound, not weighing over four pounds, shall be deemed mailable matter, and shall be chargeable with postage at one cent an ounce for all distances under three thousand miles, and two cents an ounce for all distances over three thousand miles, to which fifty per cent. shall be added in all cases where the same may be sent without being pre-paid, and all printed matter chargeable by weight shall be weighed when dry.

Quarterly rates of postage when paid in advance, on Newspapers and Periodicals sent from the office of publication to actual subscribers, from and after the 30th of September, 1852.

	Daily	Tri-weekly	Weekly	Monthly
			free	
Weekly newspapers (one copy only) sent to actual subscribers within the county where printed and published				
Newspapers and periodicals not exceeding 1½ oz. in weight, when circulated in the state where published	22½	9½	3½	½
Newspapers and periodicals of the weight of 3 oz. and under, sent to any part of the United States	45½	19½	6½	1½
Over 3 and not over 4 oz.	91	39	13	3
Over 4 and not over 5 oz.	$1·36½	58½	19½	4½
Over 5 and not over 6 oz.	1·82	78½	26	6
Over 6 and not over 7 oz.	2·27½	97½	30½	7½
Over 7 and not over 8 oz.	2·73	1·17	39	9

DIRECTIONS.

1st. When the weight of any publication exceeds eight ounces, the same progressive rate of postage, laid down in the above table, must be charged.

2d. Publishers of newspapers and periodicals may send to each other from their respective offices of publication, free of postage, one copy of each publication; and may also send to each actual subscriber, inclosed in their publications, bills and receipts for the same free of postage.

3d. Postmasters are not entitled to receive newspapers free of postage under their franking privilege.

4th. If the publisher of any newspaper or periodical, after being three months previously notified that his publication is not taken out of the office to which it is sent for delivery, continues to forward such publication in the mail, the postmaster to whose office such publication is sent, will dispose of the same for the postage, unless the publisher shall pay it; and whenever any printed matter of any description, received during one quarter of the fiscal year, shall have remained in the office without being called for during the whole of any succeeding quarter, the postmaster of such office will sell the same, and credit the proceeds of such sale in his quarterly accounts in the usual manner.

5th. Quarterly payments in advance may be made either at the mailing office or the office of delivery. When made at the mailing office, satisfactory evidence of such payment must be exhibited to the postmaster at the office of delivery.

COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.—Imports into St. Louis by the river for two years commencing January 1st, 1850, and ending December 31st, 1851.

Articles.	1851.	1850.
Apples, green, bbls.	13,094	20,291
" dried, bbls. & sacks,	20,642½	14,766
Axes, boxes	602	1,875
Bacon, casks	76,183½	27,106
" boxes	962	6,195
" bulk lbs	310,495	558,703
Bagging, pieces	2,765	1,202
Barley, bushels	149,859	72,591
Beans, barrels	1,602	1,378
" sacks	8,156	3,017
Beef, barrels	10,119	11,423
" ½ do	1,854	775
" tierces	..	..
Beeswax, sacks, bbls., bxs.,	650½	..
Boots, boxes	19,735	27,160
" trunks	680	2,800
Brandy, bbls	2,855	5,723
Buffalo robes	95,844	64,654
Butter, bbls	2,181	1,966
" kegs	4,545½	5,349
" firkins	3,636	2,234
Candles, sperm, boxes	139	496
" tallow, "	2,092	2,806
Cattle	1,819	1,376
Cheese, boxes	21,340	26,381½
" casks	422	..
Cider, barrels	540½	601
Cigars, foreign, boxes, 1000 each	1,008	26,381
Cigars, domestic, boxes, 1000 each	938	1,633
Coffee, sacks	103,123	73,281
Corn, bushels	1,834,689	1,016,077

Articles.	1851.	1852.
Cotton yarns, packages	..	..
Dry goods, boxes	108,583	94,162
" packages	480,589	362,936
" bales	41,224	26,298
Fish, kegs	1,810	1,198
" boxes	4,783	5,843
" barrels	6,864	6,758
" half barrels	2,105	2,192
Feathers, sacks	1,143	1,593
Flaxseed, barrels	4,400½	2,348
Flour, barrels	194,857	326,072
" half do	6,394	7,321
Furs, packages	3,051	2,180
Gin, barrels	939	796
Ginseng, sacks and barrels	42	877
Glass, boxes	..	..
Hay, bales	23,280	25,271
Hemp, bales	64,607	62,698
Hemp seed, barrels	355	750
Hides	99,362	66,815
Hogs	17,885	12,226
Horses	853	2,098
Iron bars, tons	9,287½	14,322
" pigs	6,683½	4,468
" castings	1,214	2,485
Lard, barrels	60,646½	100,001
" kegs	16,227	17,433
Lead, pigs	521,734	601,786
" bars, lbs	38,250	113,150
" white, kegs	797	8,975
" red, "	91	..
Malt liquors, barrels	8,200½	7,725
Molasses, "	40,530½	32,463
Nails, kegs	63,736	88,813
Oakum, bales	1,506	2,612
Oats, bushels	776,141	712,617
Onions, sacks and barrels	21,897	14,629
Oil, sperm, barrels	1,677	2,038
" castor, "	459	1,678
" linseed, "	1,201½	2,587
" train, "	394	348
" lard, "	212	..
Paper, wrapping, reams	47,914	50,500
" writing, "	6,379	10,990
Peaches, green, barrels	1,207	743
" dried, "	1,187	2,260
" " sacks	4,273	5,831
Peltries, packages	1,066	1,362
Pork, barrels	114,899	135,662
" half do	3,052	7,321
" bulk	11,873,645	11,474,041
Potatoes, bbls. and sacks	58,650	13,401
Powder, kegs	14,887	18,505
Queensware, casks	2,720	3,197
" crates	2,453	2,508
Rice, tierces	2,579½	3,389
Rope, hemp, coils	33,935	33,442
" Manilla, "	1,043	5,649
Rum, bbls	198	706
Rye, bushels	7,656	2,468
Salt, domestic, fine, barrels,	444	805
" " coarse, "	37,200	24,219
" Liverpool B, sacks	17,300	23,252
" G. alum, "	119,867	159,699
" Turks I. "	46,594	94,038
Sheep	6,061	2,924
Shoes, boxes	12,057	17,022
" trunks	509	2,618
Skins	5,152	6,718
Soap, boxes	2,521	..
Sugar, hhds	29,722	24,150
" barrels	22,270	12,273
" boxes	16,098	13,926
Tallow, casks	376	439
" barrels	1,175½	809
Tar, "	10,090	1,126
" kegs	5,600	5,219
Tin plate, boxes	6,677	9,993
Tea, chests	1,058	2,873
" half chests	2,694	5,906
Tobacco, hhds	10,286	9,272
" boxes, manufact'd.	10,235	10,309
Vinegar, barrels	755	1,134
Wheat, bushels	1,644,861	1,863,750
Whisky, barrels	48,541½	38,813
Wine "	5,364½	8,972
Wool, sacks	1,684	1,509

NOTE.—Several important articles in the trade of St. Louis are omitted in the list of imports to this city.

SAVANNAH, GEORGIA.—We regret not to have been able to procure later and more important information upon this city than appears under its appropriate head, or under that of Georgia Rail-Roads, United States Cotton Crop, &c., but we were disappointed from an unexpected quarter.

The returns of population by the last census, (below) and for which we are indebted to a friend, are supposed to fall short of the reality by at least 2,000.

UNITED STATES NAVY, 1st JANUARY, 1852.—There are in the United States Navy 68 captains, 97 commanders, 327 lieutenants, passed midshipmen 233, midshipmen 171.

Ships of the line.—Pennsylvania, 120 guns; Franklin, 74; Columbus, 74; Ohio, 74; North Carolina, 74; Delaware, Alabama, Vermont, Virginia, New-York, New-Orleans, 74 guns each. Total 11.

Razee, Independence, 54 guns. Total 1.

Frigates.—United States, Constitution, Potomac, Brandywine, Columbia, Congress, Cumberland, Savannah, Raritan, Santee, Sabine, St. Lawrence, 44 guns each; Constellation and Macedonia, 36 guns each. Total, 14 vessels.

Sloops of War.—Saratoga, John Adams, Vincennes, Warren, Falmouth, Fairfield, Vandalia, St. Louis, Cayenne, Levant, Portsmouth, Plymouth, St. Mary's, Jamestown, Germantown, Albany, 20 guns each; Ontario, Decatur, Preble, Marion, Dale, 16 guns each. Total, 21 vessels.

Brigs.—Dolphin, Porpoise, Bainbridge, Perry, 10 guns each. Total, 4 vessels.

Schooners.—Wave, 1 gun; Phœnix, 2; Petrel, 1. Total, 3 vessels.

Steam Frigates.—Mississippi, Susquehanna, Powhatan, Saranac, San Jacinto. Total, 5.

Steamers.—Fulton, Michigan, Alleghany, Union, Vixen, Waterwitch, Massachusetts, General Taylor, Engineer, John Hancock. Total, 10.

Store Ships and Brigs.—Relief, Lexington, Supply, Fredonia. Total, 5 vessels.

U. STATES RELIGIOUS STATISTICS (ESTIMATED.)—*Roman Catholics*, 1,073 churches, 1,233,350 communicants. *Episcopalians*, 1,232 churches 67,550 members. *Presbyterians* (Old School), 2,675 churches, 140,060 members. *Lutheran*, 1604 churches, 163,000 members. *Methodist* Church North and South, 1,000,000 communicants. *Congregationalists*, 1971 churches, 197,196 members. *Baptists*, 8,872 churches, 719,290 members. *Campbellite Baptists*, 1848 churches, 118,618 members. There are 95,000 other *Presbyterians*, 1,000,000 *Dutch* and *German Reformed*, 6000 *Moravians*, 3,000 *Reformed Methodists*, 20,000 *Wesleyan Methodists*, 15,000 *United Brethren*, 15,000 *Allbright Methodists*, 58,000 *Mennonites*, 30,000 *Unitarians*, 60,000 *Universalists* 5000, *Swedenborgians*, 3,586 *Six Principle Baptists*, 6,243 *Seventh Day Baptists*, 56,000 *FreeWill Baptists*, 10,000 *Church of God Baptists*, 3000 *Christian Baptists*, 64,000 *Anti-mission Baptists*.

U. STATES CURRENCY, COINAGE, ETC.—The large increase which the specie currency has undergone the last four years, has, up to this time, been without any very perceptible influence upon values, or the rent of capital generally, and that it is so, may, without doubt, be ascribed to the fact that all other products of industry have increased in an equal or even greater ratio, and the channels of circulation which were before nearly bare of coin, particularly gold, have become, at least on the seaboard, far better stocked with gold. We may take

official data in order to approximate the quantity of gold and silver coins actually now in the country, and the rate of its increase. Prior to the year 1821 there were no official records of the imports and exports of the precious metals; up to that year there had been coined in the United States, however, $7,541,542 of gold, and $10,900,490 of silver, which would make, together, $18,442,032; but nearly all the small circulating coin was then, as now, Spanish fractions, and owing to the false location of the mint, nearly all the gold imported, and which came to New-York, remained in the banks' vaults in the foreign shape. In those days the difficulty, risk and expense of sending gold from New-York to Philadelphia for coinage, was too great for any individual or bank to undertake. There had also been some specie, but not much in the country at the formation of the government. Under all these circumstances, viz: the actual coinage, the retention of foreign coins in the banks, the circulating Spanish coin, &c., Mr. Gallatin and Mr. Crawford both estimated the specie in the country at about $30,000,000. Since that time the amount of specie has been more accurately ascertained. The import and export of foreign coins and bullion have been, since 1820, as follows:

Statement of the Import and Export of Gold and Silver Coin and Bullion annually, from October 1, 18 20, being the period at which they were first recorded, to June 30, 1851.

Years	Gold Bullion		Gold Coin		Silver Bullion		Silver Coin	
	Import Dolls	Export Dolls	Import Dolls	Export Dolls	Import Dolls	Export Dolls	Import Dolls	Export Dolls
1821	..	..	..	..	84,890	90	7,980,009	10,477,969
1822	..	..	..	..	411,444	28,248	2,958,402	10,781,932
1823	..	..	..	..	230,771	1,800	4,867,125	6,371,187
1824	11,941	..	34,954	..	319,451	..	8,013,489	7,014,552
1825	151,020	..	378,257	215,672	368,827	10,849	5,252,661	8,470,534
1826	116,194	15,648	502,546	434,555	462,087	25,090	5,740,131	3,632,385
1827	91,049	8,610	1,019,399	820,304	422,605	3,236	6,616,077	6,139,155
1828	69,650	13,663	738,570	928,384	465,064	42,588	6,216,458	6,565,804
1829	110,638	25,270	706,028	935,102	837,107	213,821	5,749,839	3,136,941
1830	115,867	10,637	705,879	474,876	1,047,343	24,154	6,285,475	731,955
1831	106,191	21,690	765,838	899,365	686,283	203,572	5,687,633	5,831,830
1832	102,021	7,615	614,665	630,850	736,711	255,717	4,454,107	3,351,417
1833	48,276	26,773	563,585	495,890	997,849	..	6,160,676	1,722,196
1834	293,665	12,681	3,472,507	276,999	514,417	2,591	13,631,043	1,383,987
1835	655,437	..	1,669,739	625,679	765,283	..	10,040,968	5,122,495
1836	1,913,137	25,777	5,318,725	275,940	318,350	52,695	5,850,669	3,694,186
1837	536,549	101,563	1,895,265	1,828,653	594,291	5,600	7,490,309	2,756,914
1838	230,694	..	11,444,189	740,203	392,843	2,500	5,679,390	2,292,342
1839	86,540	77,660	1,065,652	2,814,650	154,680	8,040	4,267,391	3,968,035
1840	273,127	..	2,812,030	1,468,300	469,434	47,689	5,328,222	4,665,952
1841	134,181	166,086	1,098,246	676,757	274,225	63,011	3,401,730	6,271,452
Total to Sept. '41	5,105,588	513,673	34,866,174	14,642,239	9,835,945	991,291	131,673,803	104,304,220
1842	56,365	..	700,920	1,134,002	39,456	..	3,291,464	2,508,713
1843-9 mos.	100,835	450	10,965,602	299,808	142,199	..	5,111,699	1,113,104
1844	83,150	..	1,530,154	1,183,116	208,694	..	4,008,031	4,087,693
1845	66,103	..	752,747	2,210,979	41,275	..	3,210,117	5,551,070
1846	14,150	..	896,263	1,629,348	33,579	..	2,833,740	1,852,069
1847	151,749	..	21,423,182	2,975,105	71,923	..	2,474,485	869,103
1848	56,882	..	3,351,873	8,379,785	392,939	174,071	2,558,590	4,595,488
1849	297,570	6,500	3,771,077	1,008,859	154,688	..	2,427,905	3,432,415
1850	175,984	2,160	1,600,722	2,511,788	26,316	..	2,825,770	2,962,367
1851	196,466	1,528	3,372,644	4,758,805	48,471	4,534	1,835,942	6,631,305
Total to June 30	1,199,234	10,638	54,365,103	24,082,591	1,159,542	179,505	30,677,743	33,703,397

The aggregates sum up thus:

	Gold			Silver		
	Imports	Exports	Excess of Imports	Imports	Exports	Excess of Imports
Coin	$89,231,367	$38,704,830	$50,506,537	$162,351,545	$138,007,617	$24,343,929
Bullion	6,304,822	524,311	5,780,511	11,015,478	1,170,796	9,846,691
Total	$95,536,189	$39,249,141	$56,287,048	$173,367,024	$139,178,413	$34,188,620

The supply of silver has been very small, and it will be observed from the imports and exports, that in the last ten years the export is actually $3,000,000, say 10 per cent. more than the apparent imports. These are the facts according to the official figures, but really the stock of silver has undergone no diminution. The exports are nearly all foreign coins, which come here unreported in the pockets of immigrants, and return upon the manifests. Thus, in the months of July and August last, there were exported from New-York $7,000,000, of five francs, German and English silver, nearly all of which came in the pockets of immigrants, unknown to official returns; much gold comes also in the same private manner, and the re-exports of those pieces are equal to $500,000, because they are the most desirable means of remittance; as there is no available mint in the United States, their national character is not changed. The Atlantic gold mines first began to furnish gold to the mint in 1824, and since the discovery of California they have somewhat declined. The total supply of American gold deposited at all the mints up to July 31, 1852, was as follows:

SUPPLY OF UNITED STATES GOLD.

	California	Other Mints	Total
1824 to 1846	..	$10,713,211	$10,713,211
1846	..	1,139,357	1,139,357
1847	..	889,085	889,085
1848	$45,301	851,374	896,675
1849	6,151,361	927,784	7,079,144
1850	36,273,097	665,217	36,938,314
1851	55,938,232	602,380	56,540,612
1852 7 months	31,298,823	481,990	31,779,853
	$129,706,813	$16,219,438	$145,976,251

Thus we have the domestic production, and if we add this to the net import, the supply amounts to $202,263,299 of gold since 1820. Now the actual United States coinage at the mint and branches, has been as follows:

UNITED STATES COINAGE.

	Gold	Silver	Total Coinage
Coinage to 1821	$7,541,543	$10,900,490	$18,442,033
" 1821 to 1852	172,747,755	67,081,918	239,829,673
" Jan. 1, to Aug. 1, 1853	31,951,751	455,545	32,407,296
Total	$212,241,048	$78,437,953	$290,679,002

The exports of United States coin from 1821 to June, 1851, reached $39,874,357; and for the year ending July 1, 1852, they have been about $35,000,000. The official returns do not distinguish between silver and gold in the export of the United States coin, but during the past year they have been nearly all gold. It results then as follows:

		Exp'ted as Coin
United States coinage—		
1821 to 1851	$176,341,149	$21,804,777
1851	03,488,524	18,069,580
1852	32,407,296	35,000,000
Total	$272,236,969	$74,874,357

This gives an increase of near 200 millions dollars of United States coin since 1821. It will be observed that the gold coinage since 1821, is much larger than the domestic supply of the metal. It has been as follows:

Domestic supply of gold, 1821 to 1852	$145,976,251
Excess imports of gold	56,287,048
Total supply, 1821 to 1852	$202,263,299
" coinage "	204,699,516

Thus, the coinage has been greater than the whole apparent supply, but it arises from re-coinage from jewelry and ornaments melted up at the mint, and from the emigrant supplies of gold which do not enter into the official returns. Now, notwithstanding this apparent coinage of all the importation, the quantity of foreign coins in the market is large, and always in good supply. In order to show the nature of the supply, we take a table of the exports of coin from New-York for the months of July and August for two years:

EXPORTS OF COIN FROM NEW-YORK, JULY AND AUGUST.

	1851.	1852.
United States gold coin	$5,546,580	$4,763,485
" silver coin	1,037,955	110,000
British silver coin	48,600	15,630
Mexican dollars	121,268	237,000
Other foreign silver	357,339	098,607
English gold	313,894	85,057
Doubloons, gold	127,004	33,156
Other foreign gold	80,481	23,000
Gold dust	15,627	6,000
Total	$8,658,738	$6,271,934

Thus, notwithstanding the apparent small supply of foreign money by the official returns of importation, the export returns show that the markets are well supplied. Under these circumstances, if the estimate by Mr. Crawford was correct at $30,000,000 in 1820, and the United States coinage has increased $200,000,000, with an apparent large supply of foreign coin still in the market, the stock of specie in the country is now not short of $230,000,000 we allow, but little for the use of the precious metals in the arts, because a great quantity of that raw material is refabricated, and of late years, since the process of galvanizing has been introduced, the quantity of the metals used in ornaments is far less than formerly. The Hon. Daniel Webster estimated the amount of coin in the country, in 1835, in his speech upon the Sub-Treasury, at $80,000,000; since then it has increased $150,000,000, without taking into consideration the quantities of bullion which circulate as money in California; the actual money there is that which has passed through the United States mint. Now, notwithstanding this great supply of money, the uses for it have multiplied immensely; California alone has taken off a very considerable quantity, and the west and south and east are comparatively well supplied with coin, where but a few years since there was none.

Since 1840 over 8,000,000 souls have been added to the population of the United States, and according to the census the whole white population doubled between the years 1820 and 1850; that is to say, it rose from 10,537,378 at the former period to 19,619,366 in 1850. As in the last two years the increase has been more rapid, the probability is, that from 1832 to 1852 the number of whites have quite doubled; a fact, which in itself, if the relative wealth and trade per year remained the same, would have required a doubling of the specie—that is to say, an addition of $80,000,000. But the productive wealth of the country, its industry and traffic, are very much more per head than they were in 1830. Thus, the exports of domestic produce from the country, were $6 per head in 1830, and $10 per head in 1851; the imports were $7 per head at the former period, and are now $11 per head. The property which came via the New-York canals to tide-water was under $10,000,000 in 1830, and was $55,000,000 in 1851. The production of coal and iron rose from nothing to $20,000,000; about the same with sugar in Louisiana. The production of cotton has increased from 1,000,000 bales to over 3,000,000 bales, say from $40,000,000 to $120,000,000 in value. The rail-road and canal traffic has increased $30,000,000 per annum, requiring a large currency. Manufactures and small trades have more than quadrupled. Under all these circumstances, if, at $8 per head, money was far from abundant in 1830, its relative abundance would not now be increased at $12 per head, which would give the amount now estimated in the country, viz: $240,000,000. But the increase in population, the extension of rail-roads, and the development of natural wealth, are growing with a more rapid pace than ever, and a proportional increased demand for currency must attend those circumstances for a long time to come. The shower of coin which has sprinkled over the face of the country, in the last two years, has but partially refreshed the thirsty soil. There was a want of money which is far from being satisfied, and the distribution of the money over the country has been most iniquitously retarded by the want of a mint in New-York, and once more Congress has adjourned, having dodged the most important measure to the material interests of the whole people which could have occupied their attention.—*Kettell.*

UNITED STATES EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FROM CUBA—1851.

Domestic exports		Domestic exports	
Oil, Sperm..galls.	17,087	Candles, tallow lb	715,674
" Whale.....	184,094	Soap	380,748
" Linseed.....	3,581	Tobacco manuf'd	191,211
Candls., sprm .lb.	56,925	Leather, ...	16,864
Fish, dried..qtls.	37,509	Shoes.....pair	1,552
" pickled..bbls.	1,799	Cables..... cwt	737
" " kegs	85	Gunpowder ...lb	63,714
Staves & heads.M	3,713	Salt.....bush	5,770
Shingles.....	616	Lead.....lb.	6,248
Boards.....M ft.	44,491	Nails.....2,694,886	
Naval stores bbls.	2,764	Castings	13,806
Beef.....	1,652	Other Iron ....$	518,603
Tallow, ...lb.	546,767	Copper Goods..$	15,287
Butter.....	412,902	Drugs.....	56,008
Cheese	256,162	Cotton goods...$	25,741
Pork.....bbls.	3,364	Flax.....	30
Hams .....lb.	1,237,919	Apparel.....	1,432
Lard 7	836,153	Earthenware	1,128
Horses.....	108	Combs & brushes $	2,976
Flour .....bbls.	5,511	Morocco.....	6,987
Corn. .....bush	239,105	Fire engines	4,284
Corn meal..bbls.	3,398	Printing types ..	1,744
Bread	1,369	Books and music	10,630
" .....kegs.	3,678	Paper	31,119
Potatoes ....bush	66,058	Paints.....	11,830
Apples.....bbls.	6,964	Glass	21,123
Rice .....tcs.	27,618	Tin	2,731
Cotton .....lb.	113,572	Pewter	488
Tobacco... hhds.	18	Specie.....	20,535
Hops.....lb.	1,119	Trunks	3,720
Spirits .....galls.	1,472	Bricks.....	2,693
Beer...	85,391	Coal.....tons	13,832
Turpentine.....	15,071	Ice.....$	18,320
Furniture.....$	58,788		
Coaches	17,717	Total value.....$5,239,276	
Hats.....	873	In Amer. ves....	5,039,768
Saddlery.....	5,192		

Exports—Foreign goods		Imports	
Specie.....$1,013,529		Gold.....$	317,768
Worsted goods..	10,982	Coffee .....lb	3,099,084
Silk goods	88,532	Copper ore ..$	8,740
Linens	7,406	Copper....pigs	2,331
Apparel.....	2,780	Cotton goods..$	5,029
Nails .....lb.	4,000	Silk.....	5,435
Brandy ...galls.	2,123	Plyg.cards.pcks	15,588
Oil, linseed	3,311	Cabinet wood..	97,580
Cocoa .....lb.	98,343	Dye wood	11,505
Figs.....	33,374	Raw hides.....	5,379
Pepper	603,189	Cocoa.....lb.	32,898
Candles, tallow	1,600	Molasses..galls.	31,518,462
Stearine.....	10,200	Sugar, brn...lb.	275,327,497
Cordage	29,396	" white...	2,274,194
Salt.....bush.	71,721	Almonds.....	27,125
Fish, dried..cwt.	3,253	Indigo	13,144
Fish .....bbls.	490	Tobacco ...leaf	3,396,796
		Cigars .....M.	162,904
Tot. val.	$1,284,487	Other tobac..lb.	22,460
In Am. ves.	1,279,244		
		Tot. val.	$17,046,837
		In. Am. ves.	15,615,951

UNITED STATES EXPORTS—1851.

Summary Statement of the value of the Exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the year commencing on the 1st day of July, 1850, and ending on the 30th of June, 1851:

THE SEA.		
Fisheries—		
Whale and other fish oil.....	$882,483	
Spermaceti oil.....	1,044,967	
Whalebone.....	689,662	
Spermaceti candles.....	195,916	
Dried Fish or cod fisheries.....	367,729	
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel.....	113,933	
		3,294,692
THE FOREST.		
Product of wood—		
Staves, shingles, boards, scantling, hewn timber..	$2,348,621	
Other lumber.....	205,190	
Masts and spars.....	70,095	
Oak bark and other dye....	355,477	
All manufactures of wood.	2,076,395	
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, turpentine.....	1,063,842	
Ashes, pot and pearl.....	649,091	
		6,768,711
Ginseng.....		100,549
Skins and furs.....		977,762
		7,847,021
AGRICULTURE.		
Product of animals—		
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle.....	$1,689,958	
Butter and cheese.....	1,124,652	
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs.....	4,368,015	
Horses and mules.....	198,155	
Sheep.....	18,875	
		7,399,655
Vegetable food—		
Wheat.....	1,025,732	
Flour.....	10,524,331	
Indian corn.....	1,762,549	
Indian meal.....	622,866	
Rye meal.....	145,802	
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse.....	120,670	
Biscuit or ship bread... ..	354,286	
Potatoes.....	79,314	
Apples.....	71,367	
Rice.....	2,170,927	
		16,877,844
Indigo		2,805
Cotton.....		112,315,317
Tobacco.....		9,219,251
Hemp.....		29,114
All other agricultural products—		
Flaxseed.....	18,988	
Brown sugar.....	29,170	
Hops.....	11,636	
		59,794
		145,903,778
MANUFACTURES.		
Wax.....		122,835
Refined sugar.....		219,588
Chocolate.....		3,255
Spirits from grain.....		36,084
Spirits from molasses.....		239,622
Molasses.....		16,830
Vinegar.....		16,915
Beer, ale, porter, cider.....		57,975
Linseed oil and spirits of turpentine....		145,410
Household furniture.....		362,830
Coaches and other carriages.....		199,421
Hats.....		103,768
Saddlery.....		30,100
Tallow candles and soap.....		609,732
Snuff and tobacco.....		1,143,547
Leather, boots and shoes.....		458,838
Cordage.....		52,054
Gunpowder.....		154 257
Salt.....		61,424
Lead.....		11.774
Iron—pig, bar, and nails.....		21[illegible],652
Castings.....		164 425
All manufactures of		1,875,021
Copper and brass.....		91,871
Medicinal drugs.....		351,585
Cotton piece goods—		
Printed or colored	$1,006 561	
Uncolored,.....	5,571,576	
Twist, yarn, and thread....	37,260	
Other manufactures of....	625,808	
		7,241,205

Hemp and flax—	
Cloth and thread	1,647
Bags and all manufactures of	5,376
Wearing apparel	1,211 894
Earthen and stoneware	23,096
Combs and buttons	27,334
Brushes	8,257
Billiard tables and apparatus	1,708
Umbrellas, parasols, sunshades	22,260
Leather and morocco skins (not sold per pound)	13,309
Fire engines and apparatus	9,488
Printing presses and type	71,401
Musical instruments	55,700
Books and maps	153,912
Paper and stationery	155,664
Paints and varnish	109,834
Manufactures of glass	185,436
Tin	27,823
Pewter and lead	16,496
Marble and stone	41,449
Gold and silver and gold leaf	68,630
Gold and silver coin	16,069,580
Artificial flowers and jewelry	121,013
Trunks	12,207
Brick and lime	22,845
	$34,413,206
Coal	163,977
Ice	106,805
Articles not enumerated—	
Manufactured	3,793,341
Raw produce	1,166,898
	4,960,239
Total	$196,689,718

UNITED STATES TONNAGE—1850-51.

Comparative view of the registered and enrolled tonnage of the United States; showing the tonnage employed in the whale fishery; also, the proportion of the enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the coasting trade, cod fishery, mackerel fishery, and whale fishery, from 1815 to 1851, inclusive.

YEARS.	Total tonnage	Registered tonnage in whale fishery	Proportion of the enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the—			
			Coasting trade	Cod fishery	Mackerel fishery	Whale fishery
	Tons and 95ths					
1815	1,368,127 78	—	435,066 87	26,570 33	—	1,229 92
1816	1,372,218 53	—	479,979 14	37,879 30	—	1,168 00
1817	1,399,912 41	4,871 41	481,457 92	53,990 26	—	349 92
1818	1,225,184 20	16,134 77	503,140 27	58,551 72	—	614 63
1819	1,260,751 61	31,700 40	523,556 20	65,044 92	—	686 35
1820	1,280,166 24	35,391 44	539,080 46	60,842 55	—	1,053 66
1821	1,298 958 70	26,070 83	559,434 57	51,351 49	—	1,924 40
1822	1,324,699 17	45,449 42	573,090 02	58,405 35	—	3,133 50
1823	1,336,565 68	39,918 13	566,408 88	67,621 14	—	585 37
1824	1,399,163 02	33,165 70	589,223 01	66,419 00	—	180 08
1825	1,423,110 77	35,379 24	587,273 07	70,626 02	—	—
1826	1,534,189 83	41,757 32	666,420 44	63,761 42	—	226 83
1827	1,620,607 78	45,653 21	732,937 65	74,048 81	—	338 94
1828	1,741,391 87	54,621 08	758,922 12	74,947 74	—	180 34
1829	1,260,797 81	57,284 38	508,858 10	101,796 78	—	—
1830	1,191,776 43	38,911 82	516,978 18	61,554 57	35,973 38	792 87
1831	1,267,846 29	89,315 79	539,723 74	60,977 81	46,210 80	481 82
1832	1,439,450 21	72,868 84	649,627 40	54,027 70	47,437 72	377 47
1833	1,606,149 94	101,158 17	744,198 60	62,720 70	48,725 45	478 39
1834	1,758,907 14	108,060 14	783,618 65	56,403 70	61,082 11	364 16
1835	1,824,940 14	97,640 00	792,301 20	72,374 18	64,443 11	—
1836	1,820,102 65	144,680 50	873,023 21	63,307 37	64,425 25	1,573 36
1837	1,896,685 69	127,241 81	956,980 60	89,351 89	46,810 90	1,894 86
1838	1,995,639 80	119 629 89	1,041,105 18	70,064 00	56,649 16	5,229 55
1839	2,096,478 81	131,845 25	1,153,551 80	72,238 68	35,983 87	489 09
1840	2,180,764 16	136,926 64	1,176,694 46	76,035 65	28,269 10	—
1841	2,130,744 37	157,405 17	1,107,067 88	66,551 84	11,321 13	—
1842	2,092,390 69	151,612 74	1,045,753 39	54,804 02	10,006 83	377 31
1843	2,158,601 93	152,374 86	1,076,155 59	61,234 25	11,775 70	143 33
1844	2,220,095 07	168,293 63	1,109,614 44	85,224 77	16,170 66	321 14
1845	2,417,002 06	190,695 65	1,190,898 27	99,825 66	21,413 16	206 92
1846	2,562,084 81	196,980 16	1,289,870 59	72,516 17	36,463 16	439 58
1847	2,839,045 77	193,858 72	1,452,093 35	70,177 52	31,451 13	—
1848	3,154,941 85	192,179 90	1,620,988 16	82,651 82	43,558 76	432 75
1849	3,334,015 29	180,186 29	1,730,410 84	42,970 19	73,853 78	—
1850	3,535,454 23	146,016 71	1,755,796 42	85,646 30	58 111 94	—
1851	3,772,439 43	181,644 52	1,854,317 90	87,475 89	50,539 02	—

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.—From the latest accounts prepared at the Treasury of the United States, and published by order of Congress, we collect and arrange the following:

The number of American vessels which cleared for foreign countries during the year ending June 30, 1851, was 9,274. of 3,200,519 tonnage, with a crew of 113,640 men, and 3,427 boys. The number of foreign vessels 10,712, 1,929,535 tons, 89,659 men, and 1,920 boys. Total clearances, American and foreign, 19,986 vessels, 5,130,054 tons, 303,299 men, and 5,356 boys.

The number of American vessels which entered in the same time was 8,951, 3,054,349 tons, 113,471 men, 3,116 boys. Number of foreign vessels 10,759, 1,939 091 tons, 90,796 men, 1,831 boys. Total American and foreign entered, 19,710 vessels, 4,993,440 tons, 204,267 men, 4,937 boys.

STATEMENT OF FOREIGN IMPORTS INTO UNITED STATES, YEAR ENDING 1ST JULY, 1851.

WHENCE IMPORTED.	MERCHANDISE PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM.					From dominions of each power.
	Free of duty	Paying duties	Total	In American vessels	In foreign vessels	
Russia	$36,344	$1,356,438	$1,392,782	$1,007,981	$384,801	$1,392,782
Prussia	—	20,542	20,542	15,392	5,150	20,542
Sweden and Norway	581	966 656	967,237	161,069	806,168	996,238
Swedish West Indies	19,587	9,414	29,001	28,654	347	
Danish West Indies	16,096	219,798	235,894	203,055	32,839	274,781
Denmark	—	38,887	38,887	—	38,887	
Hanse Towns	297,949	9,710,415	10,008,364	5,098,915	4,909,449	10,008,364
Holland	383 917	1,668,789	2,052,706	771,761	1,280,945	
Dutch East Indies	208,356	201,792	410,148	410,148	—	3,124,997
Dutch West Indies	38,970	533,500	572,470	539,501	32,969	
Dutch Guiana	—	89,673	89,673	89,673	—	
Belgium	5,840	2,371,790	2,377,630	1,840,031	537,599	2,377,630
England	2,283,452	88,328,786	90,612,238	66,984,122	24,628,116	
Scotland	3,097	2,996.613	2,999,710	1,745,368	1,254.342	
Ireland	1,104	234,834	235,938	26,589	209,349	
Gibraltar	465	73.139	73,604	13,292	60,312	
Malta	248	25,919	26,167	12,805	13,362	
British East Indies	54,677	3,281,658	3,336,335	3,309,967	26,368	
Cape of Good Hope	1,300	121,923	123,223	121,663	1,560	105,823,079
British Honduras	18,258	156,268	174,526	143,751	30,775	
British Guiana	25,904	18,309	44,213	40,517	3.696	
British West Indies	302,280	701,591	1,003,871	533,043	470.828	
British American Colonies	160,367	1,576,284	1,736,651	210,270	1,526,381	
Other British Colonies	—	132	132	132	—	
Canada	1,529,685	3,426,786	4,956,471	2,360,174	2,596,297	
France on the Atlantic	307,164	29,391,960	29,789,124	28,153,261	1,635,863	
France on the Mediterranean	3,538	1,922,891	1,926,429	775.308	1,151,121	31,767,410
French Guiana	11,000	17,948	28,948	28,948	—	
French West Indies	18,914	8,995	22,909	14,146	8,763	
Spain on the Atlantic	4,807	446,990	451,797	229,269	222,528	
Spain on the Mediterranean	10,383	1,700,393	1,710,776	1,071.076	639,700	
Teneriffe and other Canaries	—	27,718	27,718	11.301	16,417	
Manilla and other Philippine Islands	20,582	1,234,106	1,254,688	1,181,225	73,463	22,972,235
Cuba	661,172	16,385,759	17,046,931	15,615,957	1,430,974	
Other Spanish West Indies	175,087	2,305,242	2,480,329	2,220,132	260,197	
Portugal	150	367,398	367,548	26,480	341,068	
Madeira	29	102,419	102,448	88,846	13,602	
Fayal and other Azores	22,793	10,059	32,852	32,122	730	504,698
Cape de Verds	681	1,169	1,850	1,850	—	
Italy	23,032	2,028,865	2,051,897	1,148,298	903,599	2,051,897
Sicily	3,866	822,058	825,924	423,907	402,017	825,924
Sardinia	250	2,552	2,802	121	2,681	2,802
Trieste and other Austrian ports	9,862	720,926	730,788	47,210	683,578	730,788
Turkey	10,195	891,041	901,236	718,392	182,844	901,236
Hayti	1,315,689	574,279	1,889,968	1,664,591	225,377	1,889,968
Mexico	1,111,659	693,120	1,804,779	1,446.096	358,684	1,804,779
Central Republic of America	26,521	123,333	149 856	137,424	12,432	149,856
New Grenada	518,523	177,083	695,606	667,284	28.322	695,606
Venezuela	1,481,946	898,349	2,380,295	2,037,576	342,719	2,380,295
Brazil	8,889,131	2,636,173	11,525,304	8,891,582	2,633,722	11,525,304
Cisplatine Republic	1,560	17,554	19,114	—	19,114	19,114
Argentine Republic	101	3,265,281	3,265,382	1,915,289	1,350,093	3,265,382
Chili	76,821	2,657,925	2,734,746	2,734,746	—	2,734,746
Peru	48,085	46,648	94,733	63,574	31,159	94,733
Equador	806	75,886	76,692	76.692	—	76,692
South America generally	39,700	129	39,829	10,200	29,629	39,829
China	4,638,170	2,426,974	7,065,144	6,413.206	651,938	7,065,144
Africa generally	184,384	978,792	1,163,176	1,091,661	71,515	1,163,176
West Indies generally	—	25,751	25,751	25,751	—	25,751
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	1,172	1,126	2,298	2,298	—	2,298
Sandwich Islands	10,637	6,515	16,852	16,852	—	16,852
Total	25,106,587	191,118,345	216,224,932	163,650,543	52,574,389	216 224,932

Statistical view of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of Exports to and Imports from each foreign country, and the tonnage of American and foreign vessels arriving from and departing, during the year ending June 30, 1851.

COUNTRIES.	COMMERCE.			NAVIGATION.			
	Value of Exports.		Value of imports	American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.	
	Foreign produce	Total domestic and foreign		Entered the United States	Cleared from the United States	Entered the United States	Cleared from the United States
Russia	$145,967	$1,611,691	$1,392,782	9,817	9,241	3,966	3,239
Prussia	5,444	85,913	20,512	262	184	704	1,635
Sweden and Norway	21,566	782,366	967,237	2,669	1,545	25,228	9,096
Swedish West Indies	786	61,909	29,001	276	1,319	—	—
Denmark	19,540	111,797	38,887	—	199	544	2,086
Danish West Indies	125,602	1,028,289	235,894	10,386	18,233	5,052	4,175
Hanse Towns	641,491	6,047,447	10,008,364	21,734	16,696	90,539	69,724
Holland	284,054	2,195,169	2,052,706	11,417	9,239	18,262	26,014
Dutch East Indies	43,140	247,570	410,148	3,329	3,016	150	5,651
Dutch West Indies	138,089	504,987	572,470	15,923	7,687	7,663	806
Dutch Guiana	5,582	91,073	89,673	4,222	4,927	763	524
Belgium	142,649	2,852,012	2,377,630	16,578	17,654	7,524	3,849
England	8,151,266	113,273,187	90,612,238	619,592	641,566	411,611	274,283
Scotland	261,937	4,072,940	2,999,716	18,219	18,508	46,218	22,987
Ireland	1,200	599,888	235,938	5,488	3,142	74,021	12,618
Gibraltar	52,529	230,433	73,604	509	3,900	1,114	1,962
Malta	12,238	76,299	26,167	300	1,097	604	746
British East Indies	175,484	688,390	3,336,335	29,9 7	49,216	2,813	2,964
Cape of Good Hope	—	161,891	133,223	1,233	2,501	238	627
Mauritius	2,976	19,858	—	—	—	—	—
British Honduras	23,362	237,168	174,526	3,065	3,933	2,524	5,125
British Guiana	3,734	544,288	44,213	2,781	12,001	1,567	4,220
British West Indies	159,949	4,103,509	1,093,871	58,353	88,534	43,315	42,437
Canada	2,093,300	7,929,140	4,956 471	1,013,275	927,013	514,383	516,883
British American Colonies	861,230	4,085,783	1,736,651	62,458	108,235	364,218	392,507
Other British Colonies	—	—	132	—	—	—	—
France on the Atlantic	2,814,668	27,381,735	29,789,124	135,696	147,093	26,498	12,533
France on the Mediterran.	135,393	870,411	1,926,429	7,146	16,614	14,656	10,027
French West Indies	20,702	310,281	22,909	3,963	10,888	2,353	871
Miquelon and French fisher.	—	3,715	—	—	672	—	2,072
French Guiana	651	46,344	28,948	681	1,006	—	—
Bourbon	2,875	22,728	—	—	—	—	—
French possessions in Africa	—	—	—	—	—	—	194
Spain on the Atlantic	1,075	959,788	451,797	9,940	14,688	5,547	12,494
Spain on the Mediterranean	137,472	4,594,803	1,710,776	15,101	9,576	19,590	44,014
Teneriffe and other Canaries	5,639	19,179	27,718	300	753	746	157
Manilla & Philippine Islands	7,000	132,544	1,254,688	9,933	15,134	2,549	4,805
Cuba	1,284,847	6,524,193	17,046,931	355,515	361,732	53,162	29,942
Porto Rico & othr Span. W. I.	57,209	1,018,619	2,480,320	48,336	36,320	7,874	6,013
Portugal	4,900	173,338	367,546	961	2,470	5,175	5,076
Madeira	7,170	101,765	102,448	1,068	3,379	137	1,314
Fayal and other Azores	1,045	21,286	32,852	1,864	1,532	678	723
Cape de Verd Islands	2,437	59,913	1,850	111	1,505	—	730
Italy generally	197,406	1,864,240	2,051,897	—	—	—	—
Tuscany	—	—	—	5,210	1,513	4,710	485
Sicily	8,193	49,936	225,924	27,178	2,848	16,473	1,916
Sardinia	19,401	330,289	2,802	168	6,741	6,204	8,479
Pontifical States	—	—	—	—	—	310	—
Trieste & othr Austrian ports	230 894	2,496,467	730,788	814	10,179	6,281	13,371
Turkey, Levant, &c.	65,529	227,733	901,236	6,704	4,268	2,109	—
Greece	—	—	—	307	—	—	—
Hayti	167,918	1,847,290	1,889,968	39,940	33,153	7,890	7,586
Mexico	567,098	1,581,788	1,804,779	29,407	31,019	12,701	20,145
Central America	39,089	262,391	149,856	8,550	27,565	200	4,406
New Grenada	533 121	3,040,822	695,606	166,375	205,390	9,960	12,585
Venezuela	189,746	1,044,585	2,380,295	17,103	11,761	2,738	2,891
Bolivia	—	—	—	383	189	234	139
Brazil	623,960	3,752,916	11,525,304	63,663	63,629	22,498	7,848
Argentine Republic	414,916	1,074,766	3,265,382	13,382	11,661	11,005	5,185
Cisplatine Republic	13,078	45,789	16,114	154	1,320	1,992	947
Chili	286,428	1,895,305	2,734,746	30,068	48,140	23,396	41,667
Peru	22,338	272,098	94,733	20,102	18,920	5,751	13,519
China	329,342	2,485,287	7,065.144	27,587	46,317	11,327	10,196
West Indies generally	—	76,936	25.751	—	—	—	—
Equador	—	—	76,602	586	219	410	568
South America generally	40,715	76,911	39,829	245	1,768	1,185	—
Liberia	—	—	—	—	257	—	—
Africa generally	65,283	1,340,644	1,163,176	12,675	12,978	1,085	505
Asia generally	1,375	71,961	—	—	—	—	—
South Seas & Pacific Ocean	95,832	666,978	2,998	48,501	54,678	1,046	4.013
Sandwich Islands	381	381	16,852	18,992	36,390	3,215	12,008
Australia	—	—	—	6,281	7,832	27,168	25,928
Northwest Coast	—	—	—	187	1,960	—	—
Greenland	—	—	—	—	376	—	—
Atlantic Ocean	—	—	—	3,077	6,960	—	—
Ionian Islands	—	—	—	846	—	—	—
Indian Ocean	—	—	—	3,393	4,540	—	—
Uncertain places	—	—	—	102	—	—	46
Total	21,698,293	218,388,011	216,224,932	3,054,349	3,900,519	1,939,091	1,929,585

UNITED STATES.—National character of foreign vessels entered or sailed from U. S. year ending July, 1851.

RECAPITULATION.

Entered and Sailed.	Entered		Cleared	
	No	Tons	No	Tons
Russian	42	17,579	30	12,667
Prussian	47	15,623	60	18,313
Swedish	199	62,686	207	65,689
Danish	43	8,662	41	8,427
Hanseatic	286	100,108	298	100,570
Dutch	69	21,708	66	19,965
Belgian	24	7,754	18	5,560
Mecklenburg	12	3,565	10	2,934
Oldenburg	12	2,898	10	2,011
Hanoverian	7	1,312	5	1,596
British	9,429	1,559,869	9,423	1,552,170
French	95	23,252	100	26,608
Spanish	176	44,592	168	41,266
Portuguese	18	3,328	23	4,424
Austrian	15	6,723	20	8,125
Sardinian	57	14,746	54	15,075
Sicilian	21	5,391	29	7,307
Mexican	36	4,042	38	4,053
Venesuelan	9	1,445	10	1,802
Brazilian	9	2,681	8	2,212
New-Grenadian	9	2,006	7	1,574
Argentine	7	1,427	5	884
Cisplatine	3	646	—	—
Chilian	26	6,044	27	5,811
Hawaiian	16	2,002	14	1,728
Peruvian	17	4,163	23	5,578
Tahitien	—	—	2	129
Equadorian	5	1,533	4	704
Cent. American	1	66	4	539
Lubec	5	1,445	3	838
Italian	3	486	5	916
Pontifical	1	310	—	—
Total	10,759	1,939,091	10,712	1,929,535

UNITED STATES.—Number of vessels built in, year ending July, 1851.

States	Ships	Brigs	Schooners	Sloops and canal boats	Steamers	Total number of vessels built	Total tonnage, Tons and 95ths
Maine	102	45	94	9	4	254	77,308 49
N. H.	7	—	—	—	—	7	8,158 06
Vermont	—	—	4	—	—	4	561 29
Mass.	50	4	78	1	—	133	41,323 93
R. Island	3	1	4	3	1	12	3,056 60
Conn.	1	—	22	7	5	35	3,414 20
N. York	25	2	60	88	54	229	76,805 02
N. Jersey	1	—	47	20	2	70	5,869 40
Penn	4	3	14	103	76	200	28,648 12
Delaware	1	—	7	4	3	15	2,058 47
Maryland	15	10	101	—	4	130	18,027 04
D. of Col.	—	—	1	71	2	74	4,439 17
Virginia	—	—	16	7	4	27	1,778 31
N. Carolina	—	—	32	1	—	33	1,724 82
S. Carolina	—	—	4	—	1	5	625 12
Georgia	2	—	1	—	3	6	2,309 15
Florida	—	—	4	—	—	4	275 53
Alabama	—	—	2	3	—	5	354 62
Mississippi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Louisiana	—	—	15	1	8	24	2,327 05
Tennessee	—	—	—	—	1	1	225 10
Kentucky	—	—	—	—	38	38	8,861 49
Illinois	—	—	4	—	—	3	313 56
Missouri	—	—	—	5	6	11	2,066 04
Ohio	—	—	6	—	15	25	6,035 81
Michigan	—	—	5	3	1	9	1,365 92
Wisconsin	—	—	1	—	—	1	76 39
California	—	—	—	—	1	1	69 69
Total	211	65	522	326	233	1,357	298,203 60

UNITED STATES MILITIA.

Statistics of the Militia Force of the United States compiled from the latest returns, together with the number of permanent or fixed Military Posts or Forts, and the number of Arsenals in each state. 1852.

States and Territories	Total No. of Commissioned Officers	Non-Commissioned Officers, Musicians and Privates	Aggregate
Maine	183	62,850	62,588
New-Hampshire	1,348	30,803	32,151
Massachusetts	549	119,141	119,690
Vermont	1,088	22,827	23,915
Rhode Island	78	14,365	14,443
Connecticut	456	51,193	51,649
New-York	7,662	257,631	265,293
New-Jersey	1,988	37,183	39,171
Pennsylvania	7,518	268,552	276,070
Delaware	447	8,782	9,229
Maryland	2,397	44,467	46,864
Virginia	6,494	118,634	125,128
North Carolina	4,267	75,181	79,448
South Carolina	2,591	52,618	55,209
Georgia	3,092	54,220	57,312
Florida	620	11,502	12,122
Alabama	2,832	73,830	76,662
Louisiana	1,392	42,431	43,823
Mississippi	825	35,259	36,084
Tennessee	3,607	67,645	71,252
Kentucky	4,805	77,035	81,840
Ohio	2,051	174,404	176,455
Michigan	2,793	61,145	63,938
Indiana	2,861	51,052	53,918
Illinois	4,618	165,741	170,359
Wisconsin	1,804	30,399	32,203
Iowa	—	—	—
Missouri	3,919	57,081	61,000
Arkansas	1,109	16,028	17,137
Texas	1,248	18,518	19,766
California	—	—	—
Minnesota	7	1,996	2,003
Oregon	—	—	—
Utah	217	2,358	2,575
New-Mexico	—	—	—
Dist. of Columbia	96	1,152	1,248
Total	74,902	2,105,524	2,180,486

UNITED STATES.—Tonnage on 30th June, 1851.

	Tons and 95ths	
The registered vessels employed in the foreign trade on the 30th June, 1851	—	1,726,807 28
The enrolled vessels employed in the coasting trade on the 30th June, 1851	1,854,317 90	
The licensed vessels employed in the coasting trade, under twenty tons, on the 30th June, 1851	45,658 36	
		1,899,976 26
The enrolled vessels employed in the cod fishery on the 30th June, 1851	87,475 89	
The enrolled vessels employed in the mackerel fishery on the 30th June, 1851	50,530 02	
The enrolled vessels employed in the whale fishery, on the 30th June 1851	—	

The licensed vessels, under twenty tons, employed in the cod fishery on the 30th June, 1851.....	8,140 88	
		146,155 84
Total.....	—	3,772,439 43
The registered tonnage employed in the whale fishery on the 30th June, 1851.....	181,644 52	
The registered tonnage employed other than in the whale fishery on the 30th June, 1851.....	1,544,662 66	
		1,726,307 18
The aggregate amount of the tonnage of the U. S. on the 30th June, 1851.	—	3,772,439 43
Whereof—		
Permanent registered tonnage.....	1,351,193 14	
Temporary registered tonnage.....	375,114 09	
Total registered tonnage		1,726,307 23
Permanent enrolled and licensed tonnage.....	1,979,540 68	
Temporary enrolled and licensed tonnage.....	12,792 18	
Total enrolled and licensed tonnage.....		1,992,332 86

Licensed tonnage, under twenty tons, employed in the coasting trade.	45,658 36	
Licensed tonnage, under twenty tons, employed in the cod fishery...	8,140 88	
Total licensed tonnage, under twenty tons...		53,799 24
Total		3,772,439 43
Of the enrolled and licensed tonnage, there were employed in the		
Coasting trade.....	1,854,317 95	
Cod fishery.....	87,475 89	
Mackerel fishery.....	50,539 02	
Whale fishery.....	—	
		1,992,332 86
Of the registered tonnage, amounting, as stated above, to 1,726,307 23 tons, there were employed in steam navigation.....	62,300 13	
Of the enrolled licensed tonnage, amounting, as stated above, to 1,992,-332 86 tons, there were employed in steam navigation.....	521,216 87	
Total tonnage in steam navigation.....		583,607 00

UNITED STATES.—STATEMENT EXHIBITING A CONDENSED VIEW OF THE TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 30TH JUNE, 1851.

District		Total tonnage of each district
Passamaquoddy..	Me.	25,349 38
Machias.....	"	22,876 88
Frenchman's Bay.	"	34,899 86
Penobscot.....	"	40,509 25
Belfast.....	"	44,835 22
Bangor.....	"	27,571 64
Waldoborough...	"	103,593 51
Wiscasset.....	"	19,718 96
Bath	"	103,795 91
Portland.....	"	97,571 70
Saco.....	"	2,825 88
Kennebunk.....	"	11,204 44
York.....	"	1,963 66
Portsmouth.....	N. H.	25,427 54
Burlington.....	Vt.	2,932 31
Newburyport....	Mass.	26,706 80
Ipswich.....	"	492 55
Gloucester.....	"	23,436 11
Salem.....	"	30,498 78
Beverly.....	"	3,948 36
Marblehead.....	"	4,351 51
Boston.....	"	342,936 09
Plymouth.....	"	10,723 10
Fall River.....	"	12,070 50
New-Bedford.....	"	131,409 46
Barnstable.....	"	72,997 44
Edgartown	"	8,079 19
Nantucket.....	"	26,752 71
Providence.....	R. I.	15,552 55
Bristol.....	"	12,177 63
Newport.....	"	10,320 19
Middletown.....	Conn.	12,757 53
New-London.....	"	40,407 67
Stonington.....	"	20,302 51
New-Haven	"	18,302 44
Fairfield.....	"	24,403 60
Champlain.....	N. Y.	4,207 70
Sackett's Harbor.	"	7,105 93
Oswego.....	"	26,823 21
Niagara.....	"	605 94
Genesee.....	"	666 01
Oswegatchie.....	"	1,983,34

District		Total tonnage of each district
Buffalo Creek....	N. Y.	43,603 13
Sag Harbor.....	"	12,808 00
Greenport.....	"	7,391 11
New-York.....	"	931,193 74
Cape Vincent....	"	2,496 19
Cold Spring.....	"	2,608 12
Perth Amboy....	N. J.	22,765 89
Bridgetown.....	"	14,835 07
Burlington.....	"	6,797 05
Camden.....	"	15,663 41
Newark.....	"	5,773 33
Little Egg Harbor.	"	6,639 26
Great Egg Harbor.	"	16,421 70
Philadelphia.....	Pa.	222,428 90
Presque Isle.....	"	8,210 35
Pittsburg	"	53,734 34
Wilmington.....	Del.	6,816 67
New-Castle	"	5,064 19
Baltimore.....	Md.	160,511 94
Oxford	"	12,636 45
Vienna.....	"	14,469 87
Snow Hill.....	"	9,851 59
St. Mary's.....	"	12,290 48
Town Creek.....	"	2,124 73
Annapolis.....	"	2,659 58
Georgetown....	D. C.	22,903 46
Alexandria.....	Va.	10,111 87
Norfolk.....	"	23,661 25
Petersburg.....	"	2,927 41
Richmond	"	6,835 14
Yorktown.....	"	5,241 52
Tappahannock...	"	5,659 69
Accomack C. H..	"	4,341 78
East River.....	"	1,650 84
Yeocomico.....	"	3,388 57
Cherrystone.....	"	1,037 16
Wheeling	"	3,923 89
Wilmington.....	N. C.	12,387 45
Newbern.....	"	4,891 65
Washington.....	"	6,615 58
Edenton.....	"	1,128 08
Camden	"	12,310 52

District		Total tonnage of each district
Beaufort.....	N. C.	2,414 24
Plymouth.....	"	2,607 00
Ocracoke.....	"	1,428 15
Charleston.....	S. C.	31,910 27
Georgetown.....	"	3,277 19
Beaufort.....	"	—
Savannah.....	Ga.	22,265 09
Sunbury.....	"	—
Brunswick.....	"	489 67
Hardwick.....	"	—
St. Mary's.....	"	1,429 87
Pensacola.....	Fla.	2,322 79
St. Augustine....	"	—
St. Mark's.....	"	281 60
St. John's.....	"	309 92
Appalachicola....	"	2,050 36
Key West.....	"	4,400 10
Mobile.....	Ala.	27,327 01
Pearl River.....	Miss.	1,236 21
Vicksburg.....	"	168 48
New-Orleans.....	La.	251,900 14
Teche.....	"	1,384 79
Nashville	Tenn.	3,587 67
Louisville.....	Ky.	12,937 90
St. Louis.....	Mo.	34,065 46
Chicago.....	Ill.	23,103 45
Cuyahoga.....	Ohio	36,070 50
Sandusky.....	"	4,858 38
Cincinnati.....	"	14,187 18
Miami.....	"	3,936 13
Detroit.....	Mich.	40,319 46
Michilimackinac..	"	1,455 40
Galveston.....	Texas	3,667 16
Point Isabel.....	"	657 49
Saluria	"	588 32
Astoria.....	O'gn	1,063 43
San Francisco....	Cal.	58,063 54
Sonora.....	"	372 43
Milwaukie.....	Wis.	2,946 10
		3,772,439 43

STATEMENT OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM UNITED STATES, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1851.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	TOTAL VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS.			
	In American vessels	In foreign vessels	To each country	To the dominion of each power
Russia	$1,187,116	$278,588	$1,465,704	$1,465,704
Prussia	5,152	75,317	80,469	80,469
Sweden and Norway	198,269	562,531	760,800	821,957
Swedish West Indies	58,924	2,233	61,157	
Denmark	2,913	89,344	92,257	994,944
Danish West Indies	804,909	97,778	902,687	
Hanse Towns	550,542	4,853,414	5,403,956	5 405,956
Holland	711,724	1,199,391	1,911,115	
Dutch East Indies	168,226	36,204	204,430	2,567,934
Dutch West Indies	341,397	25,501	366,898	
Dutch Guiana	85,491	—	85,491	
Belgium	2,335,077	374,316	2,709,393	2,709,393
England	72,200,571	32,921,350	105,121,921	
Scotland	2,004,306	1,806,697	3, 11,003	
Ireland	203,335	395,353	898,688	
Gibraltar	91,616	86,288	577,904	
Malta	60,261	3,800	64,061	
British East Indies	451,670	58,236	512,906	124,223,563
Cape of Good Hope	158,666	3,225	161,891	
Mauritius	—	16,882	16,88?	
Honduras	190,507	23,299	213,806	
British Guiana	384,266	156,288	540,554	
British West Indies	2,292,523	1,650,637	3,943,560	
Canada	3,585,671	2,250,263	5,835,834	
British American Colonies	492,627	2,731,926	3,224,553	
France on the Atlantic	23,864,292	702,775	24,567,067	
France on the Mediterranean	588,172	146,846	735,018	
French West Indies	217,319	72,260	289,579	25,060,925
Miquelon and other French Fisheries	3,715	—	3,715	
French Guiana	45,693	—	45,693	
Bourbon	16,607	3,246	19,853	
Spain on the Atlantic	759,853	198,860	958,713	
Spain on the Mediterranean	87,638	4,369,693	4,457,331	
Teneriffe and other Canaries	8,765	4,775	13,540	11,735,814
Manilla and Philippine Islands	125,544	—	125,544	
Cuba	5,030,718	199,558	5,239,276	
Other Spanish West Indies	861,286	100,124	961,410	
Portugal	88,945	83,397	167,342	
Madeira	68,474	26,115	94,589	339,647
Fayal and other Azores	15,411	4,829	20,240	
Cape de Verd Islands	57,476	—	57,476	
Italy generally	906,791	830,043	1,736,834	1,736,834
Sicily	3,305	38,438	41,743	41,743
Sardinia	136,361	174,527	310,888	310,888
Trieste and other Austrian Adriatic ports	1,466,822	799,751	2,265,573	2,265,573
Turkey, Levant, &c	162,204	—	162,204	162,204
Hayti	1,380,447	298,925	1,679,372	1,679,372
Mexico	916,173	98,517	1,014,690	1,014,690
Central Republic of America	217,691	5,611	223,302	223,302
New Grenada	2,413,568	94,133	2,507,701	2,507,701
Venezuela	757,003	97,776	854,779	854,779
Brazil	2,841,983	286,973	3,128,956	3,128,956
Cisplatine Republic	25,804	6,907	32,711	32,711
Argentine Republic	463,535	196,317	659,852	659,852
Chili	1,581,798	27,079	1,608,877	1,608,877
Peru	186,320	63,440	249,760	249,760
China	2,111,029	44,916	2,155,945	2,155,945
West Indies generally	68,761	8,175	76,936	76,936
South America generally	36,196	—	36,196	36,196
Asia generally	70,586	—	70,586	70,586
Africa generally	1,175,049	70,312	1,245,361	1,245,361
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	601,146	—	601,146	601,146
Total	$137,934,539	$58,755,179	$196,689,718	$196,689,718

CANADIAN COMMERCE.

FOREIGN TRADE OF CANADA—IMPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN AND UNITED STATES.

	Great Britain	U. States
Coffee, green and other kinds	$4,384	$115,772
Sugar, refined and other kinds	146,543	276,892
Molasses	2,819	24,072
Tea	84,764	949,968
Tobacco, unmanufactured	759	59,935
Do., manufactured	1,799	377,916
Salt	21,063	87,517
Horses, (duty 20 per cent)	..	14,392
Cheese	2,996	17,208
Salt meat	89	4,756
Fur	55,352	46,218
Glass	49,548	39,492
Leather, tanned	47,292	142,091
Oil	112,160	77,960
Paper	58,976	48,304
Books (free)	52,920	220,111
Dried fruit	34,720	53,823
Cotton manufactures	2,965,168	938,720
Leather do.	34,168	159,709
India rubber	156	70,584
Iron and hardware	1,267,608	478,986
Machinery	6,862	161,100
Linen	409,852	44,792
Silk	027,644	14,408
Wool	2,365,348	542,372
Coals	97,994	73,054
Hide	764	205,114
Flax, hemp and tow	45,576	21,074
Tallow	4,818	128,249
Horses, (free)	796	27,278
Cotton wool	684	24,484
Carriages	..	23,020
Coin and bullion	10,140	428,792
Settlers' goods	16,584	128,597
Wheat	472	294,484

EXPORTED FROM CANADA IN 1851.

Mineral, Marine and Forest Productions—	Great Britain	U. States
Copper	$26,380	$60,372
Lead	31,616	63,784
Ashes	783,240	56,816
Number, &c	3,904,836	1,096,116
Agricultural Productions—		
Horses	200	212,572
Cows	40	114,992
Butter	145,609	56,208
Wool	—	79,036
Eggs	—	52,812
Other articles	24,924	50,264
Wheat	142,512	456,988
Flour	896,848	1,159,140
Barley and rye	—	85,760
Beans and peas	37,116	49,764
Oats	—	131,532
Other articles	22,388	62,032
Manufactures	316	45,064
Other articles, not enumerated	5,260	28,032

In 1849 the exports from the United States to Canada, were $4,971,420; in 1850, $6,544,860, and in 1851, $8,365,764. The total imports in 1851, chiefly from Great Britain and the United States, were $21,436,780, and the total exports, chiefly to Great Britain and the United States, were $13,810,604.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—SUPPLY OF COAL FOR LOUISIANA.

Some time ago, Hamilton Smith, of Kentucky, prepared for our pages a paper upon this interesting subject, addressing it to Maunsel White, of New-Orleans. By some means or other the paper never reached our possession until it had appeared in another quarter. We were, therefore, not anxious about its publication, and let it lie upon the table subject to call. As the subject, however, is still fresh in interest, and as perhaps some movement will be made in it the coming winter, we conclude to present it in full to our readers. It is certainly a great matter if coal can be furnished to our planters at from 25 to 35 cents per barrel, and the kind in question has been proved by an intelligent planter to be unsurpassed for every other purpose than the blacksmith's shop.—(ED.)

"Thus far, shipments of coal from the Ohio river have very often been attended with heavy losses, and have rarely resulted in such profits as would justify the investment of capital in the business. The demand has been uncertain, and the expenses and risks have been enormous.

With the present means of transportation, the costs of coals from the Monongahela at your city levee, or at the shore of the plantation, averages full forty cents the barrel. From Cannelton, Rose Harbor and Caseyville, the cost has averaged about thirty cents the bushel. The cost of the Upper Ohio coals cannot be reduced to any extent, if at all. Indeed, the probabilities are that this cost will be increased. Above Louisville, the river will allow the transportation of coals only for a few months in the spring and fall, and, in the opinion of our

coal merchants here, the flatboats can never be superseded, for this purpose, by any other means of conveyance.

By the use of other and better instruments, and the adoption of the methods that have obtained in England, for many years, the cost of the lower Ohio coal could be reduced full one-third, and perhaps even lower. But these instruments are costly, and the business, to be profitable, must be carried on largely, continuously, and with the utmost economy. The capital required would be at least $100,000, and no individual or company could safely make such an outlay without first securing a market at certain times, places and prices. There may be now a sufficient demand, but there must be needful arrangements between the producers and consumers.

The New-Orleans consumption of Ohio river coals, (including the tributaries of the Ohio,) is stated to be 3,500,000 bushels yearly, and increasing at the rate of from twenty to thirty per cent. The consumption at the sugar plantations is now very limited. You, better than I, can estimate what it would be, if the supply was certain, and at reduced prices. I understand that three cords of wood, in addition to the ordinary supply of bagasse, are required to make a hogshead of sugar. We reckon ten bushels of coal, properly used, as fully equal in evaporative power to a cord of our dry wood. Your wood is said to be inferior to ours.

Without any means of making an accurate calculation, I suppose that, for the next five years, the plantations in your state that can be reached by coal boats, will produce an average of 200,000 hogsheads yearly. At ten cents the bushel for coals—equal to less than $1 the cord for wood—the former would probably soon supersede the latter on these plantations, and there would arise a demand for 6,000,000 bushels yearly.

If the sugar planters find it good policy to refine their sugars, and retain the waste and the profits of their refinement, the demand for coals would be largely increased. The sugar refineries at New-York and Boston pay from $5 to $6,50 per ton for coals. Those at Cincinnati and St. Louis pay about $2,50. You may obtain it, when you and your neighbors choose to give us the needful assistance, at less than $3 per ton. It seems to me that this condensation and refinement of your sugars on the plantation, and by the use of our cheap fuel, will give you a great advantage over foreign producers, who cannot get fuel at these low prices. The saving of carriage on the waste, and the cost of double packing, would be equal to a handsome profit. Besides, your finished product need not then be taken out of the nearest line between the producer and consumer. Most of our western merchants are now supplied by New-York, Boston and St. Louis. If you will complete the process, you or we, shall save at least our freight or commission, and something on interest and insurance.

If such should be your movement, and if we of the lower Ohio are the only parties who can largely reduce the price of your fuel, there is every reason why we should soon begin to act in concert and aid each other. Although we are aware that our coal business must increase with wonderful rapidity, we dare not now risk the fluctuations in your markets without preliminary arrangements. We care not to fall into the hands of your city speculators and monopolists.

You, the consumers of coals, are now paying on the average not less, perhaps, than fifty-five cents the barrel. You have no assurance in the summer that you can get a winter's supply at $1,00 the barrel, and therefore lay in your full stock of wood. Now, if you can organize an association of consumers, who will agree to take a certain and large quantity of our coals at not over thirty-five cents the barrel, we can, beyond question, take immediate measures to furnish a full supply for the next season. If you will furnish the necessary capital at your legal rate of interest, with the security that the coal lands and instruments and quantity of the producers would afford, you could obtain the supply as low, probably, as twenty-five cents the barrel. If you would form an association to purchase the lands and instruments and then rent both to responsible lessees, you could, as I think, be furnished with stipulated quantities at less than twenty cents the barrel. If this result can be obtained, the *modus operandi* is entitled to the earnest consideration of your citizens and planters.

Those who are not familiar with the means used for moving coals in England, cannot but wonder at the low prices at which they are sold. They are taken

from seams averaging less than three feet in thickness, at many hundreds of feet "under the grass," with the expenditure of hundreds of thousands of dollars in shafts, engines and rail-roads; pay a high rent to the land-owners; are then often taken on rail-roads to the barges, and by these to vessels on tide-water. Cheap labor and capital have far less influence in producing low prices, than labor and capital-saving instruments and systematic arrangements. You can adopt, and perhaps improve the roads, "staiths," barges, steam-tugs, &c., now used there. For $200,000 you can buy 5,000 acres of accessible coal land on the Tread-water and Saline rivers, and prepare all the instruments needed for a supply of four millions of bushels yearly. The same quantity of coals in the mines of Northumberland or Lancaster, that could be had from these 5,000 acres, and the instruments required for moving these English coals from their native bed to tide-water, would cost some millions of pounds sterling. The difference in the amount of labor required in working the respective mines, and in your favor, would be more than an equivalent to the difference in the price of labor and capital against you. The average cost of coals in England at the points of consumption, is about eleven cents the bushel. You can get coals of an equivalent quality at ten, and probably eight cents the bushel, and without any reduction in the rates of home labor and capital.

There is a very prevalent opinion in your markets that our open burning coals are worth less than the caking coals of Pittsburgh. The difference in value is variously estimated at from five to twenty-five per cent. You and others who have carefully used both, know that this opinion is the result of interest or ignorance—ours has more evaporative power than that of Pittsburgh. The very qualities that make the latter superior for blacksmith purposes—that is, the making of a hollow fire—depreciate it for the evaporation of water. Each kind requires a different treatment. Your consumers were first supplied with the caking coal, and fitted all their apparatus for its use—with the same apparatus they could not use the anthracite coals at all; and with the same reason that they condemn ours, might, as did once the Philadelphians, declare that the anthracite coals would never be burned until the last conflagration. Professor Johnson, however, fixes very nearly the relative values of the several kinds, and experience will teach your consumers how best to manage each. I may remark here that the number of seams of coal on the lower margin of the Illinois coal basin, is now estimated by some as high as eighteen, and probably contain most of the varieties of the cannel, open, burning and caking at the mines of Chamberlin and Caldwell, six miles up the Saline river; and only three miles from the Ohio, six strata have been discovered,—three above high water and three below,—one of the upper being five and a half feet thick, and in all twenty-eight and a half feet thick. Over one million of bushels can be taken out of every acre of this land. As to convenience, quality, and quantity, there are, perhaps, no coal mines in the world equal to these. What is of more importance to you, they are accessible to your sugar planters for eight or nine months of the year. From that point, as I apprehend, the supply of coals is to be obtained, not only for your market, but for the ports on the Gulf of Mexico, and as Lieut. Maury thinks, for the Isthmus ports on the Pacific. Our Cannelton coals will be required by passing boats and by home manufacturers. We have a site above overflow, and perfectly healthy. In these respects, we have the advantage of our rivals on the Saline, Big Muddy and Treadwater. We have a further advantage in the "dip" of our strata towards the river, which saves us the entire expense of drainage. These advantages may, for some years, make up for the additional distance of two hundred miles from your market.

In concluding this hasty letter, allow me to request you to exchange views with your sugar-planting friends on this subject, and if you should agree with me that our coals are all important to you, we may be able to adopt some plan by which they shall be sent to your plantations at a low cost.

Very truly your friend and obedient servant,

HAMILTON SMITH."

Note.—Since writing the foregoing letter, Mr. P. Chamberlain has handed me the following estimate of the cost of delivering coal from the Saline and Treadwater, at the sugar plantations on the river. The estimate was prepared by him and Mr. H. L. L. Casey, who has been engaged in the coal business at the Treadwater from its commencement.

2.—HISTORY AND USES OF GUANO—ITS MANAGEMENT, AND HOW FAR APPLICABLE TO THE SOUTH.

The following admirable letter from the Hon. A. Davis, of Maryland, was communicated to the Honbls. W. Brooke and J. D. Freeman, of Miss., with permission to publish.

"Guano is the deposit of innumerable sea fowl, and some amphibious animals whose food consists almost entirely of marine shells and fish, chiefly upon islands in the South Pacific ocean. It has been preserved in its greatest purity near the Peruvian coast, from the remarkable phenomena of the most total absence of rain or moisture, both coastwise and inland, in a considerable portion of that country. Other guanos have been found south of Peru; and, recently, a Mexican guano has been introduced into the port of Baltimore, but whether from the Pacific or Gulf coast I have not learned. All of these—the Chilian, Patagonian, and Mexican---have been pronounced by chemists (and experiment, so far as my observation extends, confirms the correctness of the opinion) inferior to the Peruvian, doubtless owing to the presence of rain and moisture in all those countries, which is almost, as before stated, totally unknown upon the coast of Peru.

Its use in Peru as a manure has been long known; but its application is immediately followed by *irrigation*, which is necessary in that hot and arid country for the development of its fertilizing power. Its introduction into England and the United States is of very recent date. The first cargo imported into Baltimore—it being, I believe, the first in the United States—was in the year 1844. It was at first used with caution and in very limited quantities, from the twofold reason of, first, its high cost, and, secondly, the doubt with practical farmers of the possibility of so small a quantity of "dust" exerting such wonderful power upon vegetation as it was represented to do.

I believe the honorable Senator Pearce, of Kent county, Col. Capron, of Laurel, Prince George's county, and Edward Stabler, of Sandy Spring, in this (Montgomery) county, have the honor of being the first, or among the first, in this state, to give the result of their experiments to the public. These will be found in the first volume of the Farmer's Library, and the first volume, new series, of the American Farmer, and are interesting as well for the general success of the first application of guano, as for the failure or transient benefit in some of the experiments then made. The failure then, as well as the failure of similar experiments since made, is now well understood to result from a *too superficial* application of the guano,

---

Estimate of expenses of one trip of a steam-tug of 400 tons, of a capacity for towing eight flatboats with 75,000 bushels of coal. The time occupied should be about 20 days—one month is allowed.

1 pilot and assistant	$150	Incidental expenses—highest estimate	$315
2 engineers and assistants	150		
18 firemen and deck hands	360		
Captain	75	Cost of one trip	$2,000
Mate and carpenter	40	Eight trips the year	16,000
Cook and cabin boy	40	Cost of 600,000 bushels on board, at 4c., including cost of flatboats	24,000
8,000 bushels coal, cost on board 3c	240		
Wood for kindling	50		
Provisions	200		
Wear and tear of boats and lines	250	Cost of 600,000 bushels at plantations, 6⅔c. per bushel, or 16⅔c. per bbl.	$40,000
Insurance	60		

The receipts for upward freight estimated equal to interest on capital.

This estimate is, probably, high enough if the business was well managed. The substitution of barges for flatboats would considerably lessen the cost. Mr. Lamb, who delivered stone from our Cannelton quarries, at the United States Navy Yard, Memphis, tried each method, and the result was a large saving by using the steamboat and barges. This method is now adopted by the proprietors of the Pomeroy mines, in supplying Cincinnati, and I understand to-day, that a company has been formed to transport coals from the Monongahela to Cincinnati in the same manner.

The obtaining of a cheap and certain supply of coals on the Mississippi River, is now seen to be a matter of the utmost importance to your city, from which trade is now attracted by the eastern cities, through their new channels of communication with this valley. The freights to and from your city must be reduced, or you may lose the best part of your business. Is there any way by which these freights can be largely reduced, other than by the substitution of coals for wood for river steamboats, and a reduction of price in the cost of your coals for steamships?

Moisture here, as well as *moisture* in Peru, has been found by experience necessary to its full development. This is obtained here by burying the guano with the plow, several inches below the surface of the soil, and beyond the influence of the sun and drying winds to which our climate is subject. Some judicious practical farmers say eight or ten inches is not too deep, though I have no practical experience myself in so great a depth. I am confident that a depth of less than four inches in our climate, for a summer crop, will hazard the expected benefit from its use.

Since the successful experiment of Mr. Stabler upon his single acre of wheat, detailed in his letter of September, 1845, already referred to, from the application of the previous autumn, the use of guano has steadily and rapidly increased in this county, as well as in the lower and tide-water counties, both on the eastern and western shore of the Chesapeake, and it has also rapidly extended into the state of Virginia. From a single cargo in 1844, and but two or three in 1845, brought into the port of Baltimore, such has been the popularity of, and growing demand for, this wonderful manure, that during the year 1851—a period of only seven years from its first introduction—the import into the same port had run up to the large quantity of 25,000 tons, which was all sold at the high price of $46 to $48 per legal ton from the vessel. In this county—with a population of less than 16,000 souls—from the small experiment already referred to, and one or two others not given to the public, last year at least 1,500 tons, at a cost of $75,000, were bought by our farmers. The result has been, an increase since 1845 of at least two hundred per cent, upon the wheat crop—the crop to which it is chiefly applied. Upon old worn-out land, long considered worthless, the effect has in many instances been magical, frequently producing from twenty to twenty-five bushels of wheat from a single application of 250 lbs. per acre, where not a return for the seed sown could have been expected before. The usual mode of application is to separate the fine guano from the lumps with a sieve or riddle. (a plasterer's riddle is a convenient implement ;) then with a watering pot, with a rose to it, moisten the mass sufficiently to prevent the dust from flying. The lumps can easily be produced with a maul or hammer, if left in mass for a day or two, after being pretty freely watered. Then sow the guano with the hand (the ground of course being first prepared) *pari passu* with the wheat, at the rate of from two to three hundred pounds per acre, and both plowed in together three or four inches deep, with a shovel plow, or a long-toothed cultivator. To obtain the above quantity with sufficient precision, I lay off my ground in lands of seven strides, or twenty-one feet, passing up and down on either side, at a moderate pace, and finishing in the middle, with a handful at each cast. Some prefer before sowing to mix a peck or more of plaster of Paris with each bag of guano, [the bags averaging about 160 lbs.,] and think its action both improved and prolonged. The experiment is worthy of trial, though I have succeeded satisfactorily without, not having the plaster at hand.

Besides the wheat crop, guano has been successfully applied to corn, rye, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, and garden vegetables, and also tobacco. Although it gives a vigorous growth to the latter crop, yet it imparts a coarse texture, unfavorable to the long-established reputation of our fine silky Maryland tobacco. Corn and potatoes being gross feeders and of quick growth, require a larger supply than wheat, say from three to four hundred pounds per acre, turned under with the large two or three horse plow, unless combined with other manures, except lime and ashes, both of which seem to be unfriendly to some of the valuable salts contained in guano. But with bone-dust, barn-yard and stable manure, it acts promptly and powerfully. The finest crop of wheat I ever made was from a dressing of guano and bone-dust, and the finest crop of timothy I ever saw was from a like combination.

Various opinions exist as to the durability of guano as a manure. Some farmers claim for it an influence through a whole course or rotation of crops, while others insist they can see no benefit beyond the first crop to which it is applied. It would seem to be unreasonable to expect long-continued or permanent benefit from so slight a dressing as from two to three hundred pounds of manure per acre, after so prompt and large a return as guano always gives, when judiciously applied, from the first crop. Yet I am quite confident that I have seen

a marked influence upon the second crop of clover in the third season after its application to the wheat crop. Something, however, is certainly due to the character of the soil to which it is applied. Upon moist, compact clays, it not only acts more powerfully, but its influence is longer seen; while upon light, sandy soils it gives a less return, and its after-benefit is sooner exhausted. Upon limestone land, with which I have no experience, it is said not to act so well---perhaps from the same cause which renders freshly-limed land unfriendly to its action.

I have thus, at some length, and I fear tediously, given you an account of the source whence obtained, the use and mode of application, and, as the best evidence of its value, the growing demand and popularity among our farmers---a body of shrewd, practical, intelligent men, industrious and economical in their habits, and little disposed to waste money upon useless or doubtful objects.

As before stated, the original source of supply of the best guano is the coast of Peru. It is owned by the government, and let to contractors, who pay a bonus per ton for the privilege of digging it and sending it abroad for sale. These contractors reside in Callao, and sell it here through the agency of commission houses. Up to the present year, there have been two agents in this country for the sale of Peruvian guano---one in New-York and one in Baltimore, where by far the largest quantity [or upon the Chesapeake and its tributaries] has been disposed of. The agents prefer to sell it by the cargo or in large lots; and it is eagerly bought up by dealers who retail it at a profit corresponding with the supply in market. I have known this profit at periods of scarcity, without any advance upon the import price, to run up to the handsome sum of $15 per ton, or 36 per cent. advance. It is now, at a period of great abundance in market and considerable competition among dealers, retailing at about 12 per cent. profit upon the import price, which is now fixed by the present, and, as I understand, sole agent in the United States—Mr. Riley, of New-York—at the following rates:

For 50	tons,	of 2,240	lbs.	per	ton	$48 00
" 100	"	of "		"		47 00
" 300	"	of "		"		46 00

at four months, or a discount of 2½ per cent. for cash, which is equivalent to 7 per cent., the legal rate of interest in New-York. Thus the farmers who cannot conveniently unite upon so large a quantity as 300 tons, will have to pay from 2 to 4 per cent. more than the dealers, if bought directly from the agent or importer, or from 12 to 36 per cent. if they rely alone upon the dealers.

In all instances, where practicable, although at some disadvantage, I would advise that purchases be made directly from the importer. It is not only cheaper but safer to do so. Some of the dealers advertise *Patagonian* as well as Peruvian guano; and now Mexican is also introduced. In this state of things, when one kind is in high request and another dull of sale, the temptation is strong to mix the inferior with the superior, or otherwise to adulterate the Peruvian, the better quality. This, unfortunately, can be carried on to a considerable extent without detection, until it is too late or too troublesome to obtain redress for the fraud. The inspection in this State affords no protection against adulteration; it is rather a protection to fraud—a burden without a benefit. I do not wish to be understood as charging fraudulent sales upon any of our dealers in guano. Having always myself purchased directly from the importer, I have no reason to do so. My object is only to point out the course of the trade, and the advantages and disadvantages which attend it. I know no reason, however, why dealers in guano should be supposed to be less liable to temptation, or possess a higher degree of morality, than dealers in drugs, who have been charged before Congress with extensive adulteration of articles intended to "cure the ills which flesh is heir to"---a degree of cupidity and fraud which should be punished with the severest penalty the law can inflict. Whether it is in the power of Congress to protect the humble cultivators of the soil from a like imposition, is a question which I leave for you and General Freeman, and your honorable coadjutors, to decide.

What the cost of guano would be, landed at "Mobile or New-Orleans," I have not the means of knowing, with the present arrangement of the "sole depot"

in the city of New-York. The price in New-York having been already shown, to that will have to be added freight, insurance, and whatever port duties may be charged in the southern cities. The freight from Baltimore to the Southern cities upon the Potomac and James rivers has ranged from 75 cents to $1 per ton; sometimes higher even than the latter sum. Insurance one-half per cent.; effecting same from one quarter to one half per cent. From these data, General Freeman's better acquaintance with the charges between New-York and the South will enable him to form a pretty correct opinion of the cost of the article in Mobile or New-Orleans.

3.—JACQUE'S FUNERAL.—A PLANTATION SCENE.

"The earliest summon'd and the longest spared,
Are here deposited with tribute paid
Various; but unto each a tribute paid."

We insert from the *Southern Matron* a picture, executed with the exquisite touches of Caroline Gilman, which will be familiar to many of our readers:—

Let me pause to bestow a parting notice on one who is still associated with the happiest and tenderest scenes of my youth. Jacque's labors, as is customary with aged slaves, had been gradually suspended. He still performed a few voluntary duties, and might be seen on sunshiny days propping up a failing fence, clearing an encumbered hedge, drying nets, making baskets of rushes or oak, attending to his pigs and poultry, or, with a characteristic eye to his master's interests, tottering to the fields, and shaking his head if he detected any symptom of waste. Still retaining a feeling of authority, he was angered by idleness; even the young negroes, whose greatest toil was to turn somersets, and dance to their own whistling, tried to look busy or grave when his eye was on them, long after his corporeal and mental powers had ceased their activity. But the time drew near when old Jacque must die. It was in vain that mamma gave him her personal attendance, sent him daily luxuries, and anticipated his wants with almost filial tenderness; the golden cord of his life was loosened, and we were told one morning he had died, breathing a prayer for his master's family.

Mamma had asked him, many years before, if there was any thing she could do for his comfort.

"Tank you much, my missis," he answered; "Jacque hab everyting him want in dis world, 'cept de shroud, praise God."

Mamma gave him money, and he expended it on grave-clothes. He had taken them out and aired them from year to year; now they were, indeed, to enfold his venerable remains; and we were a mourning family; true, we were not clad in weeds, but a tender tie had been riven, and it was riven with tears. None but those who live under our peculiar institutions can imagine the strong bond existing between faithful servants and the families with whom they are connected.

I was informed by Maum Nanny, Jacque's sister, that he had left something for me in the *sill* of his chest, as his dying bequest. An old pocket-book was found there, which I opened, and discovered several bills of continental money, carefully wrapped in paper.*

Plantation negroes prefer to bury their dead at night, or before sunrise. Neighboring plantations are notified, and all who can obtain tickets from overseers attend. A spot of ground is allotted for their burial-place, and simple monuments of affection may usually be found in them. The ceremony of interment is commonly performed by a class-leader, a pious colored man, who is the spiritual teacher of the neighborhood, and prepares his brethren, by an examination into their belief, and a watch over their conduct and feelings, for communion.

The "pomp and circumstance" of the burial, for it is not less among slaves, in proportion, than in palaces, delayed the funeral until midnight. As the visitors

* It may scarcely be necessary to repeat that this incident and others in the "Southern Matron," like those in the Northern Housekeeper, are founded in truth.

assembled, they crowded the hut of the deceased, and when that was full, stood around the entrance near the coffin. At short intervals, some among the group commenced a hymn, in which all joined; refreshments were then decorously distributed.*

The death of Jacque had been particularly affecting to me, for I had been his especial favorite. I went with the boys to see him after his decease; and though I did not feel the faintness that came over me at witnessing the remains of grandmamma, yet I had that dizzy sensation which youth often experiences at the immense difference between a bright intellectual glance and the glazed eye or moveless lid, between the warm touch of affection, and the stiff, cold hand that returns no pressure.

The night of his interment was mild, and I sat at my window by the starlight, watching the approach of the negroes as they crossed the fields, or came through the avenue. Torches were seen glowing in the range of whitewashed huts, and a bush-light† was flaming near Jacque's habitation, which was so brilliant that I perceived the coffin and the groups gathering round it; while occasionally strains of their hymn came floating with a softened cadence on the breeze. The procession was formed: six women, dressed in white, preceded the coffin, and the pall-bearers, bearing torches, were on each side. Their path lay near the house, and nothing was to be heard but an occasional ejaculation of "Lord Jesus!" "He knows!" "God have mercy!" "His will be done!"

The burial place was near the river, and a huge oak threw its arms over it, as if protecting the dwelling of the dead. I could see them as they wound down the slope and stood in a circle round the grave, distance still softening their sacred song. It was one which I had heard from infancy in their devotional exercises, but never had it touched my feelings as now, when it rose over poor Jacque's last dwelling-place. The leader spoke; at first his voice was low, then, rising to that declamatory shout which often carries the feelings captive, it reached me where I sat. He described the tomb of Lazarus, and said that Jesus wept, and that they might weep, for a good brother was gone, and there was no Jesus by his grave to bring him back; he dwelt on the character of Jacque, and on their duty in imitating his example; told them to be grateful for their religious blessings, for, while the heathen were in darkness, a great light had shone upon them; dwelt long on their sinfulness and God's anger, and taxed his imagination to paint the torments of hell, unless they repented and accepted the gospel.

Familiarity with his dialect prevented, with me, all that might have been ludicrous to a stranger. He prayed for his master and mistress, that God might reward them for all their goodness to brother Jacque. "Oh Lord Jesus," he cried, "bless my young maussas. Gie 'em good counsel, and let 'em drink of de water of life, and bless my young missis; may she know de Lord dat bought her, and may she bring her alabaster box of ointment and pour it out for the love of her maussa, Christ."

As these words reached me, I could not restrain my tears; I laid my head on the window-sill, and sobbed aloud. Another hymn was sung. The words of Watts, the sweet singer of the Christian Israel, whose tender notes fall like gentle dew on the heart of monarch and slave, rose in the quiet midnight under that starry heaven.

"Why do we mourn departing friends,
Or shake at death's alarms?
'Tis but the voice that Jesus sends,
To call them to his arms."

As they ceased, the waving lights passed away. I was again alone with night in its silent beauty. I threw myself on my bed: the sounds still vibrating on my memory; and, as my eyes closed in sleep, a vision of the mansion whither the spirit of Jacque had risen, came before me, and I heard cherub voices welcome him to his heavenly home.

---

* This solemnity is usually styled by the negroes "a setting up." When a funeral occurs at too great a distance from the city to procure tea, coffee, &c., or the owners do not provide them, the body is interred, and the friends afterward celebrate what is called a "false burying," where religious ceremonies are performed, and refreshments provided.

† A fire of light wood kindled on a small mound of earth.

A plain marble slab may be seen at Roseland, on which is inscribed,

Sacred
To the Memory of
JACQUE,
A faithful slave,
His master bears this testimony to his worth.*

4.—TEXAS—HER SOIL, CLIMATE AND PRODUCTS.

We have published in the Review already as much as a whole volume upon the statistics, resources, &c., of Texas, and the inducements it holds out to settlers. All of this material will be found in our New Series of three large volumes. At present we add an extract from the *Austin Gazette*, which is very valuable. Will not some one there give us an able paper upon the history of the Territory, Republic, and State of Texas?

All the cereal grains are produced here in great perfection and abundance. The average yield of corn is about forty bushels per acre, and is planted about the first of March, and is in roasting ear the first of June. Corn for the last six years has throughout Western Texas, borne a high price, owing to the demand created by the wants of the army on the frontier, and emigration; but it is confidently predicted that the abundance of the growing crop, and the very considerable increase in its cultivation, will reduce the price for the next year.

A belt of land about a hundred miles wide, bordering on the coast, is the sugar-growing region of Texas, although cotton forms the principal product, not because it is more profitable, but because of the large outlay of capital required in the manufacture of sugar; in fact cotton requires more labor in its growth, is subject to more disastrous contingencies in this region than sugar, and where the portage is not too great, is less profitable. In this section corn, millet, oats, potatoes, pumpkins, and every species of pulse grow freely. All manner of garden vegetables grow to great perfection. Peaches, figs and pomegranates are reared with little trouble, and the fruit is abundant and of fine flavor; oranges are sometimes raised, but the climate is not adapted to their growth. Several varieties of indigenous grapes are found, from which a palatable wine is made, and the pecan-nut is here everywhere abundant. Melons of all sorts attain great size and richness of flavor. This region is well adapted to stock-raising, although the country farther west is better, and the more elevated country above better suited to raising sheep, horses and mules, where there is better water, less mud, and fewer flies and mosquitoes.

The country here is everywhere flat, presenting to the eye little diversity of scenery, except that of woods and prairies, the latter of vast extent, a perpetual common for pasturage, the only productive land being that upon the streams and in their neighborhood. Springs fit for use are nowhere found, and the water of the streams and wells is bad; the use of cistern water is becoming general.

This is peculiarly the country for large planters; persons of limited means cannot in this region engage in agricultural pursuits with a prospect of success. Here, though, as well as everywhere else in Texas, capable and industrious mechanics do well.

The country lying above this belt, although diversified in its appearance and adaptabilities, may still be treated of together. This is the proper cotton and grain-growing portion of Texas, besides which it may be safely assumed that at some future day its mineral productions will be found vastly important. Everywhere upon the surface of the earth we see unmistakable evidence, of the presence of rich ores, but, as yet, no attempt has been made to work them, nor, indeed, has there been any reliable examination made into the subject. Cotton, though yielding less heavily here than below, is more certain, and one year with another, we have little doubt will produce more. The great distance, however, from market, and the entire absence of any facilities for transportation beyond the ox-cart, renders its production limited. The face of the country is rolling, and in many places rugged and broken, veined everywhere with beautiful streams of limpid water, and abounding with springs.

Wheat, corn, and all the cereals grow finely, and are in no degree inferior, we are told, to the produce of the regions of the northwest. With the exception of the more tropical productions of the lower country, all which grow there are found here, and in addition, apples and pears do well; and a still greater variety of the grape is found here, some of them fine table fruit; and which, we have no doubt, would be much improved by cultivation.

There is a vast amount of valuable land lying uncultivated, and which the emigrant can obtain at a price of which he cannot complain. In a large portion of the state, building timber is scarce, but this is more than compensated by the presence, in all this region, of fine stone for the purpose. It has been well ascertained by experiments that this portion

---

* A similar monument is on a small plantation a few miles from Charleston.

of the state is well suited to sheep raising, the fine breeds which have been introduced into the country neither deteriorating in size nor the quantity or fineness in their fleece.

The climate may be regarded as emphatically healthy, disease being less frequent and less severe than almost any other part of the world where there is so much individual exposure, and such general disregard to all sanatory laws.

5.—LAND DONATED BY GOVERNMENT TO THE STATES.

The Hon. Mr. Snow, of New-York, in his speech in Congress, gives the following table:

"I submit a statement of the amount of land already donated to the states and territories:

	Acres.		Acres.
Ohio	2,273,858,77	Florida	2,022,993,00
Indiana	3,267,460,61	Iowa	2,713,955,22
Illinois	5,584,167,94	Wisconsin	3,128,799,00
Missouri	3,242,627,00	Tennessee	3,353,824,00
Alabama	2,094,284,00	California	500,000,00
Mississippi	4,151,011,00	Minnesota Territory	2,997,191,00
Louisiana	10,210,122,58	Oregon Territory	12,186,978,00
Michigan	6,170,866,00	New Mexico	7,493,120,00
Arkansas	6,250,813,00	Utah	6,681,707,00
		Total	84,222,184,12

"By which it will be noticed that the liberality of the government is not to be questioned, the government having sold only one hundred and one million acres; showing that almost as much has been donated as has been sold."

6.—DEBTS, REVENUES, EXPENDITURES, ETC., OF THE STATES.

Debts of the several states, showing the direct and the contingent debt. Also, the annual receipts and expenditures—with the last valuations:

	Absolute debt.	Contingent.	Total.	Int. paid, by State.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
Maine	878,250.	—	878,250	66,000	525,688	604,726
Massachusetts	1,085,500.	4,049,564	5,135 064	58,888	510,658	601,604
N. Hampshire	—	24,842	24,842	—	109,738	90,000
Vermont	58,036.	—	58,036	3,000	125,374	109,872
Rhode Island	41,000.	192,719	233,719	2,464	71,183	80,818
Connecticut	—	33,112	33,112	850	80,000	75,000
New-York	22,530,802.	933,036	23,463,836	1,214,282	767,962	826,720
New-Jersey	37,000.	—	37,000	2,200	128,583	125,542
Pennsylvania	40,677,214.	—	40,677,216	2,004,714	4,438,131	4,265,329
Maryland	15,546,192.	—	15,546,192	690,866	1,213,104	1,209,340
Virginia	13,668,051.	3,917,894	17,615,951	490,000	856,937	824,199
N. Carolina	786,500.	190,500	977,000	45,000	96,000	140,000
S. Carolina	2,061,292.	—	2,061,292	120,000	600,283	531,864
Georgia	1,828,172.	189,680	2,018,152	121,270	310,270	349,400
Florida	3,900,000.	1,916,000	396,000	234,000	56,382	59,259
Alabama	6,693,888.	1,915,381	8,609,269	471,507	597,424	471,673
Mississippi	2,271,707.	5,500,000	7,771,707	110,000	358,617	139,957
Louisiana	1,918,397.	14,227,330	16,145,777	98,000	1,091,040	1,064,865
Texas	6,818,798.	—	6,818,798	400,000	128,946	77,268
Arkansas	3,697,112.	—	3,697,112	220,000	495,194	433,976
Tennessee	2,977,000.	—	—	150,000	374,660	269,521
Kentucky	4,247,637.	250,000	4,497,631	248,999	598,602	592,254
Ohio	18,744,654.	—	18,744,654	1,051,053	3,092,903	2,960,927
Michigan	2,374,733.	333,359	2,708,092	142,440	429,268	449,353
Indiana	7,617,960.	7,993,725	15,611,685	380,000	450,681	490,000
Illinois	8,784,481.	7,843,028	16,027,510	382,830	568,230	571,020
Missouri	956,261.	—	—	75,000	450,000	230,000
Iowa	55,000.	—	—	550	15,500	14,700
Wisconsin	—	—	—	—	52,856	52,845
California	190,000.	—	—	—	—	—
	170,575 736	13,534,220	21,409,956	8 786,843	18,537,211	17,846,504
U. States	74,388,238		74,288,238	1,209,751	43,774,848	39,355,268

Massachusetts.—The direct debt is mostly for deficient government revenues; the indirect, for loan of credit to railroads.

New-York.—Direct debt is for canals and railroad credits assumed; the indirect, for credits loaned to railroads. The revenue and expenses do not include those of the canals.

Virginia indirect debt, is mostly for credits loaned to public works.

North Carolina debt, is a credit loaned to the Gaston Rail-road assumed by the state; the indirect, is a similar credit, not yet fallen upon the state.

Florida debt, is for bonds loaned to broken banks; and the contingent debt is accumulating interest.

Alabama debt, is the unredeemed credit loaned to the state banks; and the indirect, other liabilities connected with the institution.

Mississippi Debt.—Direct, is for bonds loaned to the Planters' Bank; the indirect, the fraudulent bonds of the Union Bank.

Louisiana.—The direct debt is for loans for state purposes; the indirect, the bonds loaned to banks.

Texas.—The debt is the face for which the state is liable. The nominal amount of the debt is $12,322,443. A new loan for $200,000 was authorized.

Arkansas debt, is the bonds loaned to the banks; and there may be accumulated interest in addition.

Michigan debt is the balance of bonds now outstanding.

Indiana and Illinois direct debts, are those for which the state is liable. The contingent, is the debt to be liquidated only by the state canals, and their property in the hands of trustees for that purpose.

Missouri, is the old debt. There are now two projects before the legislature of the state. One to authorize the Pacific railroad, capital $4,500,000; and the Hannibal and St. Joseph's Railroad, capital $4,500,000—making together $9,000,000; of which two-thirds, or $6,000,000, is to be raised by state credit. This last bill has become a law.

7.—PUBLIC DEBTS FOR BONDS ISSUED BY THE STATE OF LOUISIANA

In favor of banks and corporations. Interest payable and capital reimbursable by said corporations as maturing, and not provided for by the state when such corporations fail to comply with the conditions of such issues.

JANUARY 1, 1844.

Bonds issued by the State.	When due.	Amount emitted.	Amount negotiated.
Consolidated Ass'n	30 June, 1843	$763,000	$763,000*
do	1 June, 1848	1,617,000	1,617,000*
Union Bank	1 Nov. 1841	1,750,000	1,750,000
do	1 Nov. 1847	1,750,000	1,750,000
do	1 Nov, 1850	1,750,000	1,750,000
do	1 Nov. 1852	1,750,000	1,750,000*
Citizens' Bank	1 Feb'y, 1850	2,000,000	1,424,000*
do	1 Feb,y, 1859	2,000,000	1,424,000*
do	1 Feb'y, 1868	2,000,000	1,424,000*
do	1 Feb'y, 1877	2,000,000	1,424,000*
do	1 Feb'y, 1886	2,000,000	499,680
Municipality No. 2	1 May, 1869	499,680	30,240
Municipality No. 3	15 Dec., 1870	30,240	
			$17,029,920

State Bonds outstanding 1st January	1844	$19,909,920
" " "	1852	9,261,333 36
Amount redeemed		$10,648,856 64

JANUARY 1, 1852.

Bonds issued by the State.	When due.	
Consolidated Ass'n	1854 to 1866	$1,376,000
Redeemed	—	—
Redeemed	—	—
Redeemed	—	—
Union Bank	—	1,370,000
Citizens' Bank	1 Feb'y, 1859	1,296,888 89
do	1 Feb'y, 1868	1,297,333 33
do	1 Feb'y, 1877	1,297,333 33
do	1 Feb'y, 1886	1,296,888 89
do Bonds due in 1850 extended to	1 Feb'y, 1852	252,622 23
do do do	1 Feb'y, 1853	252,622 23
do do do	1 Feb'y, 1854	252,622 23
do do do	1 Feb'y, 1855	252,622 23
Municipality No. 2	1 May, 1869	356,160 †
Municipality No. 3	15 Dec., 1870	30,240 ‡
		$9,261,333 36

* Dishonored. † Int. dishonored. ‡ Int. paid by state.

8.—LEAD RESOURCES OF THE WEST.

The following account of the lead, and other mineral resources of the western states, we take from the St. Louis Republican.

The demand for lead, it is said, more than equals the supply, notwithstanding the new

and extensive discoveries here, near the eastern market. Until very recently, and up to the discovery of mines in Pennsylvania, Illinois was almost the only source of lead in the United States. The amount of lead shipped from Galena and other ports, annually, is about 42,000,000, according to the register kept in the city of Galena. This amount would be, at $4 per cwt.—the price there—worth $1,780,000. The number of miners actually at work does not exceed 2,000, which would show an average production of $890 for each man. Now deduct $90 for cost of working and smelting the mineral, and we have the large average production of $800—an amount of prosperity indicated of which no other country can boast. The lead business, which for a few years past has been declining, is daily becoming more active, and confidence in the mineral resources of the country is constantly increasing. Not one acre in one hundred of the mineral lands of Illinois, has been scratched with the pick or spade, and all the leads (lodes) heretofore worked lie within a few feet of the surface.

9.—PUBLIC DEBTS OF LOUISIANA.

Payable at the State Treasury, and provided for by the law of 1844, *and amendment of* 10th *March*, 1845, *as then adjusted and now standing.*

1 JANUARY, 1844.

State Bonds and Bills Payable.	When due	Amount due	Coupons dishon.
Bank of Louisiana, for Stock	1 July, 1844	$600,000	
do	1 July, 1849	600,000	
Mechanics' Bank, for Stock	9 May, 1853	150,000	
Draining Company, for Stock	1 Nov., 1855	50,000	$1,250
Charity Hospital, for property	24 Mch., 1872	125,000	11,200
N. O. & Nashville R. R. Co.	1 Apr., 1867	500,000	31,330
Clinton & Port Hudson R. R.	1 July, 1849	166,000	
do	1 July, 1850	166,000	58,150
do	1 July, 1869	166,000	
Mexican Gulf R. R. Co.	18 Dec., 1869	30,000	
do	11 Mch., 1870	50,000	600
do	23 May, 1870	20,000	
Citizens' Bank, for borrowed money	1 June, 1857	250,000	
Consolidated Ass'n	4 Feb., 1844	72,000	
do	1 June, 1848	153,000	
Union Bank of La.	1 May, 1844	83,000	
do	1 May, 1847	87,000	
do	1 May, 1850	88,000	28,485 82
do	1 May, 1852	87,000	
Charity Hospital, donation	1 May, 1856	100,000	10,000
B. P., favor Bank La., borrowed money	27 Feb., 1844	250,000	
" La. State Bank, "	2 Mch., 1844	50,000	1,500
" Canal and Banking Co., "	1 Feb., 1844	50,000	
		$3,898,000	$142,515 82
Add Coupons dishonored		142 515 82	
		$4,040.515 82	

1 JANUARY, 1859.

State Bonds and Bills Payable	State Bonds	When due	Amount
Bank of Louisiana, for Stock	Redeemed	..	..
do	do	..	..
Mechanics' Bank, for Stock	do	..	..
Draining Company, for Stock	Draining Company	1 Nov., 1855	$50,000
Charity Hospital, for property	Charity Hospital	24 Mch., 1872*	125,000
N. O. & Nashville R. R. Co.	N. O. & Nashville R. R.	1 Apr., 1867	483,000
	Redeemed	..	..
Clinton & Port Hudson R. R.	Clinton and P. H. R. R.	1 July, 1869	50,000
do	do	1 July, 1869	166,000
Mexican Gulf R. R. Co.	Mexican Gulf R. R.	18 Dec., 1869	30,000
do	do	11 Mch., 1870	50,000
do	do	23 May, 1870	20,000
Citizens' Bank, for bor'd m'ny.	Citizens' Bank (The balance, *as above*, redeemed)	1 June, 1857	250,000
	Deduct		$1,225,000
Union Bank of La.	Bonds of the Clinton & Port Hudson Railroad Co., held by the Union, redeemable out of the State profits in that institution	$217,000	
Charity Hospital, donation	Charity Hospital Bonds provided for by the sale of property	125,000	
			342,000
			$883,000

* Coupons dishonored, $1,011.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

E. HOWARD, Banker, of Tennessee,

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 24.

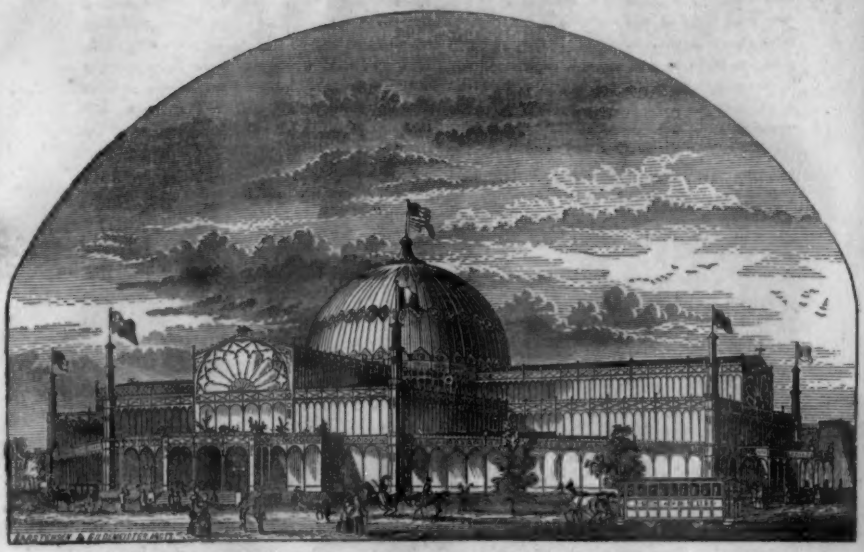
Mr. Howard was born on the 1st of February, 1817, in the county of Sumner, Tennessee. After receiving the ordinary rudiments of education, in his eleventh year he commenced life in Nashville, but in consequence of ill health, remained there only for a short time. Having changed his residence to various places in Kentucky, and in his native state, he finally settled in Clarksville, in the year 1840, where he has been permanently established in business ever since.

In 1842, Mr. Howard was elected Secretary of the Clarksville Insurance and Trust Company, which position he occupied until Sept., 1849, when the company, by his own advice, through the vote of the stockholders, was dissolved. He immediately commenced a banking and exchange business on his own account. Early adopting the opinion that the banking operations of the country should be left to individual enterprise, and be based on the productions of the country, he has, in the successful conduct of the Clarksville Insurance and Trust Company, and his own business for ten years past, demonstrated the truth of the theory. His action has not been without its influence on the moneyed institutions of his section, for during this time most of them have adopted the policy in bill-buying, by dispensing, in many cases, with endorsers. Under the old system, money was often procured on the credit of endorsers who rarely met the obligation, on the failure of principal or drawer. Having received no consideration, they generally felt themselves at liberty to contest the obligation, and avail themselves of all legal pleas to avoid its payment. This being true, the wisdom of the new policy must be obvious.

Mr. Howard is extensively connected with the tobacco interests of the west. It being the staple of his section, he has found it to his interest to acquaint himself intimately with the trade of the world, and in its participation has derived important benefits.

Although Mr. H. has been frequently solicited to accept of offices of honor and trust, he has uniformly declined them; always lending his influence, however, in propagating the principles of republicanism, as they have been handed down to us by the great apostles of democracy. A republican in religion and politics, he has ever been liberal of his time and means in encouraging and supporting whatever was calculated to exercise a beneficial influence upon society. The cause of education for the benefit of the poor has always found in him an ardent advocate.

Mr. Howard has ever taken a lively interest in behalf of internal improvements. We had ourselves the pleasure of being present at a rail-road meeting, held on a recent occasion, near Clarksville. Mr. H. was urged to address the assembly, and gave decided evidence of becoming an effective public speaker. We entirely coincided with him in the opinions he expressed with regard to the policy of the rail-road system. He said that the great object of rail-roads was not to build up cities, but to benefit the country, and that if cities could only flourish by impoverishing the country, he was in favor of erasing them as cancers on the body politic, &c., &c.



EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

I.—THE AMERICAN CRYSTAL PALACE.

We are enabled to present to our readers a correct and elaborate representation of the splendid edifice, now in course of erection in New-York, for the exhibition of the industrial products of all nations, in May next.

If any enterprise, undertaken by our citizens, could partake of the character of nationality, and attract to itself the favorable consideration and zealous co-operation of every section of the republic, this one assuredly does. It seeks to bring together the varied products of our people, from where the Oregon rolls its tide to the regions of the bleak and inhospitable Aristook,—southwardly, thence through every zone of climate; by the waters of the Ohio and the Missouri; along the shores of the Atlantic and the Gulf; where the Mississippi swells from rivulet to "inland sea;" or the Rio Grande and the Gila bound the dominions of the Republic. What a world is here to be embraced, and what an infinite diversity of ingenuity, enterprise and product!

More than this. The enterprise proposes to bring together the men of all these regions into one great conclave; side by side the woodcutter of Maine and the miner of the Sacramento; the hardy whaleman of Nantucket, and the stout boatman of the Illinois; the caravan driver of Santa Fe, and the frontier man of Nebraska; the manufacturer of Lowell; the tobacco grower of the Roanoke, and the hemp and wheat sower of Missouri and the lakes; the merchant princes of New York; the polished and wealthy planters of the Ashepoo, the Alabama, the Lafourche, and the Attakapas; the brave and sturdy hunters of Texas, and Arkansas. What a commingling of men of every shade of thought and feeling, and associations and pursuits! How gathered here in this asylum of the oppressed of all nations! The Anglo-American, first planter of our soil, represented in his remote descendants; the Celt, and the Celtiberian; the Frank, the Swede, and the Norwegian; the Scot and the Magyar; hordes from Germany, and colonists from the Sandwich Islands and China; sprinklings here and there of the aborigines themselves, proudly and sternly yield-

ing to the fiat of heaven, which decrees their extinction! Is not much to be expected from this commingling? Will it not tend to obliterate local feelings, and prejudices, and antipathies; to strengthen the bond of amity and concord; to make us feel, indeed, that we should be *one* people, inheriting in common the blood of the martyrs of liberty, cherishing alike the memory of Washington, and Jefferson, and Hamilton, and venerating and respecting the Constitution and the Government they have given us?

More than this, again. There are other purposes to be subserved. There is a world beyond us in which civilization, and the arts, and the sciences have been advancing for ages, reflecting lustre over the earth, and making man, by his achievements, little less than the angels themselves. What lessons may we learn from this world beyond! Will the peoples of this world come here? Will they bring their wares, and their fabrics, their results of finished skill and exhaustless science? We invite them. Invite them that we may learn from them. Invite them that they may learn from us—for there is a reciprocity in all these matters, and we have a great deal to teach, as well as to learn, as the late London exhibition evinced. Let there come men, and machine, and fabric. We have a great and a growing country. We shall want them all in the ages that are approaching, and they shall want us, and what we can give them. There is nothing niggard in the claims of commerce. If it asks, it grants. If it buys, it sells. It seeks to be as free as the winds that waft it, for, as Voltaire well said, it constitutes at once the wealth of the state, and the advantage of the entire world. *Commerce, qui fait à la fois la richesse d'un état et les avantages du monde entier.*

What more appropriate than the selection of the place for this great congregation of men and product? Is not every American proud of the great metropolitan city of the Western World? Is it scarcely less than the metropolitan cities across the ocean, whose charters run back to feudal times? Is it not fast climbing to the altitudes of London and Paris? Who has made this great city? Was it you, cotton-spinner of Lowell, or cotton-grower of Mississippi? you, fisherman of Cape Cod, or pioneer of Missouri? or, was it not *all of us together*, by our conjoined labor and toil, by our enterprise and our wealth, and by our spirit and resources, that have made this great, this central, this wide-acting, wide-moving, world-potential city of New-York? We *all* claim it alike. We *all* have equal rights in it, and intend to exercise them. The South knows that in this city *her* rights are secure. Its merchants were the first to protest against the growing fanaticism of the North, and their moral force will be felt again whenever abolition, run riot, would endanger the existence of the Union. Whether from interest or from feeling, we care not which, the South will find, has found, in New-York, a guardian of her rights—New-York, which lives, and moves, and has its being from the existence of the great confederation, and can hope for nothing beyond it.

We trust that the South will take measures to be represented at this great fair. We were comparatively unrepresented in England, though we could have surprised and delighted every observer, had it pleased us. We should organize associations in every state at once, for there is no time to be lost, since the building is to be opened in May next, and without doubt sufficient sums of money can be raised to defray the expenses of the transportation of our products.

Let the South unite in the great experiment. We are a part of the nation that must obtain the glory of success, or the shame of discomfiture and defeat.

By such a course, we will show that though mindful of our own rights, and jealous to the breadth of a hair, of their infraction—ready to disrupt the Union itself at any moment rather than submit to the position of inferiority, oppression and wrong, we are *Americans* yet, taking pride in the achievements of the great republic, on land and on sea, wherever its banners float, from the rising to the setting sun.

By such a course, we will also obtain at any time the co-operation and active participation of the North, in any exhibition or fair we may have upon our own soil, and how many appropriate sites could be selected for such exhibition in the future, near the Gulf of Mexico, or on the Atlantic, between the Chesapeake and the Savannah? Citizens of the Southwest have already been discussing this matter; and the time will come when they will act upon it. We think it will be soon, and stand ready to second any judicious movement in that direction.

At present, a few pages of our magazine cannot be better employed than with a sketch of the American Crystal Palace movement, a description of the building, etc., etc., referring the reader for other details to the circular of the Committee in our advertising columns:

"It was very natural that those citizens of the United States who were in London in the

summer of 1851, and who saw and felt the gratifying triumphs that our people achieved during that year, and who also saw the peculiarly popular character of expositions of this kind, and their beneficial tendencies in regard to the working classes, should early have entertained the idea of repeating the exhibition on this side of the water. Accordingly, shortly after the close of the London fair, steps were taken for the purpose.

"The form of our political system, and the constitutional restrictions imposed on our state and federal action, rendered it impossible that the affair should be, as it was in England, taken up and carried on by government; and it therefore became necessary to rely on individual enterprise and activity.

"New-York, the commercial metropolis of the Union, was naturally selected for the spot; and on the 3d day of January, 1852, the municipal authorities of that city, perceiving the immense benefits that must flow from such an enterprise, if properly conducted, not only to the commerce and prosperity of the city, but to the cause of popular instruction and of healthful entertainment, granted a lease of Reservoir Square for the object.

"The Legislature was then applied to, and that body, on the 11th of March, granted a charter of incorporation to the ASSOCIATION FOR THE EXHIBITION OF THE INDUSTRY OF ALL NATIONS.

"The principal provisions were as follows:

"The Association was incorporated with a capital of two hundred thousand dollars, leave being given to raise the same to three hundred thousand dollars.

"They were authorized to occupy any real estate that might be granted them, and thereon to erect a building for the purpose of the Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations. They were further empowered to award prizes, and do every thing necessary to carry out the general object.

"On the 17th of March, Mr. THEODORE SEDGWICK was elected President, and Mr. WILLIAM WHETTEN, Secretary.

"The next important step was to secure the co-operation and countenance of the Federal Government. It was essential, in order to obtain extensive support from the manufacturers of Europe, that their goods should be admitted duty free. The proper department of the Government of the United States treated the matter with cordial liberality; and on the 24th day of May, Mr. MAXWELL, Collector of the Port of New-York, made a written communication to the President of the Association, stating that the building, when erected, would be made a bonded warehouse so as to receive goods free of duty, while on exhibition.

"It next became necessary to organize the Foreign Department of the enterprise; and it being essential that the affairs of the Association in Europe should be, for the sake of order, conducted by some one competent agent, they selected for that purpose Mr. CHARLES BUSCHEK, of London, whose great experience as Commissioner of the Austrian Department at the London Exhibition of 1851, and whose excellent character and high social position pointed him out as eminently fitted for the place; and arrangements were thereupon entered into by which Mr. Buschek was authorized to secure the co-operation of the manufacturers of Europe. The appointment of Mr. Buschek was made on the 25th of June. Shortly after, Mr. C. E. Detmold was appointed Superintending Architect and Engineer; Mr. Horatio Allen, Consulting Engineer; and Mr. Edmund Hurry, Consulting Architect.

"The next step was to obtain the plan of the building. Sir Joseph Paxton had, with great liberality, furnished one of singular beauty, but the peculiar shape of the ground rendered it impossible to use it. The late lamented Mr. Downing—a name dear to his country—offered another of striking ingenuity, but this was also excluded by the terms of the grant from the city, which peremptorily required that the building should be exclusively of iron and glass. Many other plans were offered, of great beauty and originality; and from these, the Board, after much consultation, determined to select the one introduced in this number.

"The main features of the building are as follows: It is, with the exception of the floor, entirely constructed of iron and glass. The general idea of the edifice is a Greek cross, surmounted by a dome at the intersection. Each diameter of the cross will be 365 feet 5 inches long. There will be three similar entrances: one on the Sixth Avenue, one on Fortieth, and one on Forty-second street. Each entrance will be 47 feet wide, and that on the Sixth Avenue will be approached by a flight of eight steps; over each front is a large semi-circular fan-light, 41 feet wide and 21 feet high, answering to the arch of the nave. Each arm of the cross is on the ground plan 149 feet broad. This is divided into a central nave and two aisles, one on each side; the nave 41 feet wide, each aisle 54 feet wide. The central portion or nave is carried up to the height of 67 feet, and the semi-circular arch by which it is spanned is 41 feet broad. There are thus in effect two arched naves crossing each other at right angles, 41 feet broad, 67 feet high to the crown of the arch, and 365 feet long; and on each side of these naves is an aisle 54 feet broad, and 45 feet high. The exterior of the ridgeway of the nave is 71 feet. Each aisle is covered by a gallery of its own width, and 24 feet from the floor. The central dome is 100 feet in diameter, 68 feet inside from the floor to the spring of the arch, and 118 feet to the crown; and on the outside, with the lantern, 149 feet. The exterior angles of the building are ingeniously filled up with a triangular lean-to 24 feet high, which gives the ground plan an octagonal shape, each side or face being 149 feet wide. At each angle is an octagonal tower 8 feet in diameter, and 75 feet high.

"Four large and eight winding stair-cases connect the principal floor with the gallery, which opens on the three balconies that are situated over the entrance-halls, and afford ample space for flower decorations, statues, vases, etc. The four principal staircases consist of two flights of steps with two landing places to each; the eight winding stair-cases are placed in the octagonal towers, which lead also to small balconies on the tops of the towers and to the roof of the building.

"The building contains on the ground floor 111,000 square feet of space, and in its galleries, which are 54 feet wide, 62,000 square feet more, making a total area of 173,000 square feet for the purposes of exhibition. There are thus on the ground floor two acres and a half, or exactly 2 52-100; in the galleries one acre and 44-100; total, within an inconsiderable fraction, four acres.

"There are on the ground floor 190 octagonal cast-iron columns, 21 feet above the floor, and 8 inches diameter, cast hollow, of different thicknesses, from half an inch to one inch.

These columns receive the cast-iron girders. These are 26½ feet long, and 3 feet high, and serve to sustain the galleries and the wrought-iron construction of the roof, as well as to brace the whole structure in every direction. The girders, as well as the second story columns, are fastened to the columns in the first story, by connecting pieces of the same octagonal shape as the column, 3 feet 4 inches high, having proper flanges and lugs to fasten all pieces together by bolts. The number of lower floor girders is 252, besides 12 wrought-iron girders of the same height, and 41 feet span over a part of the nave. The second story contains 148 columns, of the same shape as those below, and 17 feet 7 inches high. These receive another tier of girders, numbering 160, for the support of the roofs of the aisles, each nave being covered by 16 cast-iron semi-circular arches, each composed of 4 pieces.

"The dome is supported by 24 columns, which go up above the second story to a height of 62 feet above the floor, and support a combination of wrought-iron arches and girders, on which rests a cast-iron bed plate, so constructed as to receive the 32 ribs of the dome. The light is communicated to the dome through the lantern, as well as from the sides, on which 32 escutcheons, in colored glass, representing the arms of the Union and its several States, or the emblems of the different nations, form a part of the decoration.

"The quantity of iron to be used for the building will amount to about 1,250 tons. The roof will cover an area of 144,000 square feet. The glass for the building will amount to 39,000 square feet, in 9,027 panes, 16 by 34 or 38 inches.

"On entering this building, the observer's eye will be greeted by the vista of an arched nave, 41 feet wide, 67 feet high, and 365 feet long; while on approaching the centre, he will find himself under a dome 100 feet across, and 118 feet high.

"It is certain, therefore, that the edifice will be larger, and more effective in its interior view, than any thing in the country.

"The aspect of the building will be entirely different from that of the London Crystal Palace. Its form affords the requisite scope for a pleasing variety of architectural embellishments, by which all monotony can be avoided, and allows a very economical use of the ground. The rising dome, independent of its effect in the interior arrangement of the edifice, will give height and majesty.

"The following are the objects which the architects have striven to combine in their plan:

"1. The greatest possible interior area.

"2. Perfect safety and elegance of construction.

"3. A well calculated and pleasing admission of light.

"4. A variety of *coup d'œil* in the interior."

2.—DISPOSAL OF THE COTTON CROP.

I make the position, that planters and their commissioned agents, by a joint effort, could dictate a range of prices at which the crop of cotton should be held. To sustain it, I propose to examine the cotton tables issuing from New-York, New-Orleans, and Liverpool, bearing on the present and future relations of supply and demand. By adding the stock in American ports on the 1st September, 1851, and the stock of all other countries, as reported on the 31st of December following, to the American crop of that year, and allowing 500,000 bales to be furnished by other countries, (although the receipts would forbid that allowance,) we have the total supply for consumption during the year 1852, which make an aggregate of 4,310,925 bales, and the consumption of all countries is shown to be 78,840 bales per week, or 4,099,680 per annum, by deducting which, from the supply, we have left at the end of the year a stock in all of 211,245 bales, at the present rate, enough for two and two-third week's consumption. To continue this calculation into another year, admit the American crop to be the same as last year, 3,015,029 bales, and that foreign countries furnish 500,000, add to these supplies the 211,245 bales, surplus of last year, and we have the total supply for consumption during the year 1853, amounting to 3,726,344 bales; if the same rate of consumption continues, there will be a deficiency at the end of the year of 373,336 bales. There is no apparent cause at present, except the want of cotton, why consumption should lessen; on the contrary, all existing circumstances favor an increase to the utmost extent of any supply that can be furnished, among which can be enumerated, the abundance of provisions, employment given to laborers, which enable them to consume a full supply of heavy clothing, peace among nations, short clippings of wool, to be supplied by cotton, the falling off in the cottons of India, the abundance and cheapness of money, which is seeking investment at a low per cent., especially in manufacturing countries, the mills working almost entirely to orders, which is an evidence that the fabric is wanted as fast as it can be made. With such an array of favorable circumstances, planters should expect a remunerating price for the present crop, and they will get it, providing their fears are not operated on by the action of other interested parties, or drawn on advance on their crops, that will compel the merchants to force the market; they should feel assured, and act on it, that every bale of cotton that has been made in 1852 will be called for at any price under the non-consuming point by January, 1854. The investigation of cotton tables, has brought to my view the fact, that there never has been two consecutive years during which cotton did not bring ten cents; indeed, I have found but one entire commercial year that it did not sell for ten cents at some period within the year; which is an evidence, if the crop was properly put on the market, it would constantly command that price. How is this to be effected? The plan proposed is, for cotton commission merchants to hold a convention and organize a board of trade, which is to investigate the relation of supply and demand, to consider the cost of production, allow a fair per cent. on planting investment, and make up a range of prices annually for which cotton should be held, urging, through an address to planters, the importance of their not drawing bills on the faith of cotton, calculated to force it on the market, and present the advantage of planters organizing throughout the cotton states, for the purpose of arriving at accurate information as to the amount of crop, at the earliest day after housing. By such action, the golden manacles can be removed, and the silver cord be broken, by which the unsuspecting and helpless planter is tamely led to the broker's stall, there to have his interest immolated at the shrine of foreign aggrandisement; and juggling merchants should remember that they are at the centres of business; to them planters are accustomed to look for information on this

subject; through their hands our cotton must go, and every opinion in regard to it is entertained with respect and confidence; and will they say there is no help, without an effort at concert? This action would, at least, reconcile planters to the price obtained for their cotton, establish more confidence between planters and merchants, whose interests are identical; it would certainly have a tendency to arrest the suicidal policy pursued by planters, of drawing an advance on their cotton, which often compel merchants, for the protection of their own and the planter's credit, to sell when his judgment would dictate otherwise, thus injuring his own, the planter's, interest, and all persons holding cotton on sale; and for merchants to advise planters not to ask an advance on their crops, without concert, would involve a question of modesty that none will brook. There is little doubt but an English record of our indebtedness is as regularly made as that of our crops, and not only the amount owed, but when it has to be paid. Under such circumstances, the planter's cotton is entirely subject to foreign capital, and until this evil is corrected, there can be no independence or voluntary action in disposing of the cotton crop; the price will be lowered or raised, as it has been in England, to suit our indebtedness and their interest.

MARENGO PLANTER.

Shiloh, Ala., Oct. 8th, 1852.

3.—WESTERN MILITARY INSTITUTE.

This college has acquired a very high reputation on account of its excellent discipline and thorough course of instruction. The report of the Board of Visitors, now before us, speaks in the highest terms of the moral deportment and progress of the cadets, the judicious government of the Institute, and the success of the whole system. The incorporation of Judge Monroe's Law School with the Institute is a most valuable addition. As a careful elucidator of the principles of law and profound jurist, the judge's reputation is co-extensive with the states.

The establishment of such a college as this, which, if faithfully administered and adequately sustained, *must* prove a real blessing to our country, necessarily entails great responsibility and labor upon its founders. We therefore think that every advocate for the extension of a sound physical and intellectual education among our youthful countrymen should, as an act of justice, inquire into the validity of this Institute's claims to patonage, and, if found worthy, exert his influence to strengthen and uphold it. With this conviction, we commend the Western Military Institute to the notice of our friends and patrons. Its advertisement appears in our columns: other information, with copies of the catalogue for 1852-'53, and the rules and regulations, can be obtained from the superintendent or adjutant, at Dreanon; A. O. Smith, Esq., Louisville; or Smith & Johnson, agents of the Institute, 67 Magazine-street, New-Orleans.

4.—VIRGINIA INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT CONVENTION.

We now keep our promise to insert the resolutions adopted by the late great rail-road convention in Virginia, prefixing them with the names of the officers:

President.—Gen. Peter H. Steenbergen, of Mason.

Vice-Presidents.—Capt. R. G. Morris, of Amherst; Wm. H. Macfarland, of Richmond; Jos. Segar, of Elizabeth City county; Wm. B. Preston, of Montgomery; R. A. Thompson, of Kanawha; Cary Breckenridge, of Botetourt.

Secretary.—Jefferson Kinney, of Augusta.

Assistant-Secretaries.—S. A. B. Gilmore, of Greenbrier; J. Woodrum, of Botetourt; J. J. Wade, of Giles; B. H. Jones, of Fayette.

Resolved, 1. That the time has now arrived when Virginia, if she would retrieve her declining fortunes, and save herself from the burden of perpetual taxation, must boldly, with confidence in her own energy, and with a firm determination, strengthened by a proper state pride, not to be thrown aside by younger and more enterprising states, resolve to contend for her legitimate share of the commerce of the great valley of the Ohio and Mississippi.

2. That, in the opinion of this convention the burden of taxation now sensibly felt by the people of this commonwealth can only be thrown off by the completion of the works of internal improvement, in which the state has already made large investments, and by promptly forming advantageous connections with the channels of commerce, and the lines of travel in other states.

3. That, in view of the rail-road connections now being formed in Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee, the vast interest of Virginia, in her works of internal improvement, imperiously demands that she shall, at an early day, complete the Virginia and Tennessee rail-road to the Tennessee line, and by a rail-road connected with her improvements already commenced unite the waters of the Ohio with those of the Chesapeake.

4. That, in the opinion of this Convention the state should adopt the policy of lending money to the various internal improvement companies having unfinished works of the first importance, to enable those companies to complete their works. Said companies being required to pay the interest, and secure the principal of the money so loaned in the manner prescribed by the new constitution, in respect to the state debt, and to give mortgages on their respective works for the purpose of securing the payment of the principal and interest, as aforesaid.

5. That aid upon the foregoing plan should be granted to the James River and Kanawha Company, for the completion of the canal to some point at or near Covington or Clifton Forge, and to construct a rail-road with a guage of five feet from such point to the Ohio River. To the Central Rail-road Company for the completion of their road to Covington or Clifton Forge. To the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road Company for the completion of their road to the Tennessee line, and to construct a branch to the line of the road from Covington to the Ohio. To the Richmond and Danville, South-side, Manassas Gap and Orange and Alexandria companies for the completion of their respective works.

6. That, the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road Company should have the privilege of running their freight-cars over the Covington and Ohio Road, and that there should be no discrimination by the James River and Kanawha Company in respect to charges for freigh or travel passing over their road to or from

either the Virginia and Tennessee Road or the Central Road.

7. That, it be recommended to the General Assembly so to amend the charter of the Norfolk and Petersburg Rail-road Company as to authorize the Board of Public Works to subscribe for three-fifths of the capital stock thereof.

There was also a resolution offered by Mr. Segar and adopted unanimously, in terms so flattering to the Review and to our labors as editor, that it would be almost immodest to copy it. We may be allowed, however, to hope that such a voice of approval will be attended by a large increase of our circulation among the enterprising internal improvement men and citizens of Virginia; in whose cause our labors have been and will be unceasing.

5.—LATE PUBLICATIONS.

Hand-Book of the Useful Arts.—This is another of the valuable series published by Mr. Putnam, under the title of the Home Cyclopedia. Its objects, which are well fulfilled by the editor, Dr. Antisell, are to comprise, in a clear and comprehensive form, for popular reference, a dictionary of all terms used in the application of science by the useful arts. It includes agriculture, architecture, domestic economy, engineering, machinery, manufactures, mining, photogenic and telegraphic art, together with the principles and practice of each, and a compend of American and European invention.

Hand-Book of Literature and the Fine Arts.—Still another of Putnam's Cyclopedias, compiled and arranged by George Ripley and Bayard Taylor, and embracing complete and accurate definitions of all terms employed in belles lettres, philosophy, theology, law, mythology, painting, music, sculpture, architecture, and all kindred arts.

In reference to the literary portion of the work, it may be said to include all terms of logic and rhetoric, criticism, style and language; sketches of works which stand as types of their age or tongue; reviews of an systems of philosophy and theology, with a history of literature among all nations. Illustrated with wood-cuts.

Northwood; or, Life North and South.—Showing the true character of both. By Mrs. Sarah J. Hale. With illustrations. New-York: H. Long & Brother.

This is a beautiful and catholic work, and comes in good time, now that the South is so much assailed in the Uncle Tom style of romances. It is in some part a reproof to those calumniators, who, Mrs. Hale well says, in their zeal have forgotten that the master as well as the slave is their brother. The work was written when abolitionism first began seriously to disturb the harmony between the South and the North.

Austral-Asia—Australia.—This is a splendid work, with maps and illustrations, published by Messrs. Tallis & Co., of London, New-York and New-Orleans, and forms a part of the series of Martin's British Colonies. We have largely referred to it and used its information in our article upon Australia in the present number.

Massachusetts Register and State Record, 1853. By George Adams.—We thank the editor for a copy of this most valuable work, which contains a complete directory of the state, with much valuable information upon its resources, statistics, history, etc. The work has been regularly published during many years.

Eagle Pass; or Life on the Border.—By Cora Montgomery. This volume constitutes No. 18 of Putnam's Semi-monthly Library for Travelers and the Fireside. The author works up much material upon the peon slavery of Mexico, and our relations with the republic, complaining that government looks with indifference upon the treatment which Americans receive in that quarter, etc.

Pynnhurst: His Wanderings and Ways of Thinking. By Donald Mac Leod. New-York: Charles Scribner. New-Orleans: J. B. Steele. Pp. 429.

We have here a collection of sketches by a new writer, some of more and some of less value. This volume tells of travels and adventures in Europe, and in a manner and upon a plan by no means uninteresting. There is in it much truthfulness to nature, and the work is therefore not devoid of genius. Yet there is manifest, it strikes us, something of an attempt, it may be an unconscious one, on the part of the author, at imitating the style of Ik Marvel, though not, perhaps, in its most objectionable features; for "objectionable" we do think that style in many particulars is, albeit there are those who admire it, and discover therein beauties unperceived by the common mind. Odd it is, no doubt, and dreamy, hiding within it, seemingly, more thoughts than lie on its surface; but often they are hidden, indeed—hidden in a mist where none, the writer not excepted, can find them, grope they long as they may. But we would not be understood as condemning "Pynnhurst." Far from it, for it contains not a few fine thoughts finely expressed.

The Greek Girl. A Tale, in Two Cantos. By James Wright Simmons. Boston & Cambridge: James Munroe & Co. Pp. 143.

Another Byronic imitation, but, we need scarcely say, not in the manner of Byron. Mr. Simmons evinces poetical talent, but not of a high order. His verses are not absolutely bad; they are worse, for they are *mediocre*. The poet must have lofty thoughts, and he must know how to express them worthily. The dedication is the best part of the book: it evinces both good sense and modesty, and is quite unique: "To the President and Faculty of Harvard University, these pages are most respectfully and with great diffidence inscribed by one who took no 'Honors,' first or second, at the venerable institution over which they preside, and of which he was an unworthy pupil; and who now comes, under the auspices of Apollo, to ask, at the hands of that benign mother, forgiveness for his early delinquencies."

Lives of Wellington and Peel.—One of the series of Appleton's Popular Library, and certainly among the very best. The biographies

are taken from the London Times, and are elaborately and ably prepared.

The Life, Character and Acts of John the Baptist, and the Relation of his Ministry to the Christian Dispensation. By the Rev. Wm. C. Duncan, M. A., Professor of the Greek and Latin Languages in the University of Louisiana. New-York: Cornish, Lamport & Co. 1852.

We are indebted to our friend the author for a copy of this work, which we are sure, like everything else from his pen, will be found throughout to be marked by sound scholarship and elaborate research. We are perhaps not enough acquainted with theological matters to form an opinion of its merits, and therefore will only refer it to religious criticism. It is based upon the German work of Johannes der Taufer of L. Von Rohden, and is the first book devoted exclusively to the treatment of the life and ministry of John the Baptist, which has ever appeared in the English language. The subject which it considers, the author discusses with thoroughness and impartiality. If his treatise, he says, shall be found to fill a place hitherto untenanted in English religious literature, he will be abundantly rewarded for his labors.

Diplomacy of the Revolution, an Historical Study. By Wm. Henry Trescott. New-York: D. Appleton & Co.

We certainly wrote a notice of this valuable work during last summer, but some how or other find, upon looking over our pages, that it has not appeared. Having expressed personally to the author how highly and how favorably we have been impressed with his labors in this as in other fields, it certainly became us to take public notice of them at an earlier day. We regret that it has been otherwise.

Now-a-days, when men expect to be made statesmen at the ballot-box, and not in the library, as knights are made by the mere tap of the sovereign's sword, it is consoling to find some one, and especially a young man of high talents and finished education, devoting himself to the analysis of government pacts and observances, and to the study of those rules of international polity which are intended for the protection of the weak against the strong, and for cementing in one wide and harmonious union the great families of the earth. Mr. Trescott is not satisfied with the surface. He dares to think and to speak even unpopular things. He dares to enter fields where flippant politics imagine are to be gathered but dead-sea fruits.

His present work is worthy of study and reflection. Its style is terse and vigorous—its erudition, elaborate and searching—its argument, close and convincing. The author has read Calhoun—read him with avantage, except upon one point, and herein we put in a caveat—he cannot admire and appreciate his great work upon government. The judgment is not in the book before us, though we have learned that the author is very free to express it.

Apropos of this great work of Calhoun. Alas, the legacy intended by the statesman for the world, has been monopolized by a few Carolina admirers. Why is it that the book has been published at a price which gives it admission to the few only? Why is it that copies can be obtained for neither love nor money in half the cities in the Union? (Our copy cost us $4 in New-Orleans, and it was the last of some four or five which had been received.) Does Mr. Calhoun belong so exclusively to Carolina? Why is it, too, that the other volumes of his writings have not appeared, with all the liberal aid afforded by the legislature? How is it that no elaborate analysis and succinct presentation of the work upon government has been prepared and published by any of the thoughtful and able disciples he left behind him? In view of all this, well might Mr. Calhoun in death, as he often did in life, pray to be saved from the kindnesses of his friends.

6.—NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

Contentment is Better than Wealth.—By Alice B. Neal, Author of "No such Word as Fail," etc., etc. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y. J. B. Steel, N. O.

Waverly Novels, comprising Rob Roy, The Antiquary, The Black Dwarf, and Old Mortality, complete in separate vols. A. Hart, Philadelphia. J. C. Morgan, N. O. A splendid edition.

Cicero's Tusculan Disputations. By Anthon. With English notes, critical and explanatory. Harper & Brothers, N. Y. J. C. Morgan, N. O.

Pure Gold; or Truth in its Native Loveliness. By Rev. D. Holmes, A. M. Derby & Miller, Auburn. J. B. Steel, N. O.

Bishop Butler's Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature: with an Analysis left unfinished by late Rev. Robert Emory, D. D., complete and edited with a life of Bishop Butler, with notes and index, by G. R. Crooks. Harpers, N. Y. Morgan, N. O. The publishers deserve great honor for giving such an edition of this immortal work.

Life and Works of Robert Burns. By Robert Chambers. In four vols. Vol. III. Harpers, N. Y. Morgan, N. O. We have noticed the other volumes of this work, and shall again refer to the present.

Memoirs of Life and Writings of Thomas Chalmers, D.D. L.L.D., by his son-in-law, Rev. Wm. Hanna. In 4 vols. (Vol. IV.) Harpers, N. Y. Morgan, N. O. No library will be without the writings of this Christian philosopher and most eloquent divine.

Summer Time in the Country. By Rev. Robert A. Wilmott. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y. J. B. Steel, N. O. (Appleton's Popular Library.)

School for Fathers; an old English story, by T. Gwynne. Harper & Brothers, N. Y. J. C. Morgan, N. O.

Institutes of Algebra. By Gerardus B. Docharty. Harpers, N. Y. Morgan, N. O.

Virginia and Magdalene; or the Foster Sisters. A Novel. By Emma D. E. N. Southworth. Complete in 1 vol. A. Hart, Philadelphia. J. B. Steel, N. O.

Southern Ladies' Book, (November No.) A neat literary periodical, edited by Miss L. V. Smith and W. T. Leonard. We will notice more fully hereafter; at present can only congratulate the fair editor and her associate, and hope for their future success.

7.—EDITORIAL NOTES.

We are still unable to publish the remaining papers relating to the Bowie family and the great duel, but they will come up before long, and our friend, Dr. Kilpatrick, must be patience itself.

We call attention to the prospectus, in another column, of the Cotton Plant, a valuable southern paper, which C. G. Baylor, late consul at Amsterdam, a gentleman well known for his advocacy of direct trade, etc., is editing. It is worthy of general support, and we trust will receive it.

Number 3 of our series of papers upon Free Banking will appear in January number; also an elaborate article discussing the Tehuantepec question.

8.—RAIL-ROAD MATTERS.

We have again a good deal of material accumulating, but assuredly our readers must be satisfied if, after the elaborate paper in the opening part of this number, we should postpone any others upon rail-roads now.

9.—NEW-YORK MERCANTILE LIBRARY SOCIETY.

We trust that the librarian will hereafter send us the reports in good season for analysis. There were in January last 23,140 volumes. The reading-room contains 23 daily papers, 38 weeklies, 77 monthlies, and 36 quarterlies. Connected with the institute are public lectures and night-school classes. The young men of New-York deserve immortal honor for this institution, which has hardly a parallel anywhere in Europe.

10.—LIVE AND LET LIVE.

In an address delivered by the Hon. Zadoc Pratt, one of the most practical and useful citizens of our country, and of which he has favored us with a copy, we find a very good commentary upon the doctrine at the head of our paragraph. We quote it for the benefit of all, and many that we know very well stand most egregiously in need of it. The doctrine is, "Live with your neighbor, and not upon him." This is the true rule of policy, as of religion, and Mr. Pratt has had the wisdom to find it out, and to make it available in carving out for himself a pre-eminent position among his fellows.

THE SOUTHERN NURSERIES,

Washington, Adams County, Mississippi, (six miles from Natchez,) now contains a fair assortment of acclimated Fruit, Shade and Ornamental Trees and Shrubs; Garden and Green-house Flowers and Plants. The list of Fruits comprises—Apples, Pears, Quinces, Medlars, Peaches, Nectarines, Apricots, Plums, Cherries, Figs, Grapes, Chesnuts, Raspberries, Strawberries, &c.

Full descriptive catalogues, containing ample directions for planting, pruning, tending, &c., can be had on application, if by letter, pre-paid.

J. C. MORGAN,

Bookseller and Stationer,

Exchange Place, adjoining the Post-Office, New-Orleans.

Japan: an Account, Geographical and Historical, by Charles McFarland. 1 vol. 12mo. $1 25.

Atlantic and Trans-Atlantic Sketches. By Capt. Mackinnon, R. N. 1 vol. 8vo. $3.

Spiers' & Surrenne's French Pronouncing Dictionary. 1 vol. 8vo. $5.

Bristed's Five Years in an English University. 1 vol. 12mo. $1 25.

Sicily: A Pilgrimage. By H. T. Tuckerman. 25c.

Home and Social Philosophy. Second Series. By Charles Dickens. 25c.

Mrs. Hale's New Books of Cookery and Complete Housekeeper. Illustrated. 1 vol. 12mo. $1.

Philosophers and Actresses. By Arsene Houssaye. 2 vols. 12mo. $2 50.

The Napoleon Dynasty. By the Bonaparte men. 1 vol. 8vo. $2 50.

American Literature and Manners. By Professor Charles. 1 vol. 12mo. $1.

Voices of Nature. By Rev. Henry T. Cheever. 1 vol. 12mo $1 25.

Lives of Winfield Scott and Andrew Jackson. By J. T. Headley. 1 vol. 12mo. $1 25.

The Personal Adventures of Our Own Correspondent in Italy. By Michael Burke Howman. 1 vol. 12mo. $1.

Daniel Webster and his Contemporaries. By Charles W. March. 1 vol. 12mo. $1.

Outlines of Moral Science. By Archibald Alexander, D. D. 1 vol. 12mo. $1.

Stories from Blackwood's Magazine. 1 vol. 12mo. 50c.

Kuhner's Greek Grammar. 1 vol. 12mo. $1 50.

Champlin's Greek Grammar. 1 vol. 12mo. 75c.

The Institutes of Algebra. By Gerardus B. Docharty. 1 vol.12mo. 75c.

Ancient Egypt under the Pharaohs. By J. Kenrick, M. A. 2 vols. 12mo. $2 50.

Comparative Physiognomy: or Resemblance between Men and Animals. By J. W. Redfield, M. D. 1 vol. 8vo. $2.

The Book of the Heart; or Love's Emblems. Illustrated by thirty-six steel engravings. 1 vol. 8vo. $5.

The Fruits of America. By E. M. Hovey.

The Lives of Wellington and Peel. 1 vol. 12mo. 50c.

Good in Everything. A Story. By Mrs. Barnwell.

NOVELS.

Heir of Randolph Abbey. 25c.
Cecilia. By Miss Burney. 50c.
Mary Seaham. By Mrs. Grey. 50c.
Hagar. By Alice Carey. $1.
Guerilla Chief. 50c.
Heads and Hearts. 50c.
Archibald Cameron. 75c.
Virginia and Magdalene. 50c.
School for Fathers. 60c.
The Coquette. 50c.
Anna Hammer. A Tale of German Life. 25c.
Reuben Medlicott; or the Coming Man. 50c.
Northwood; or Life North and South. By Mrs. Hale. 75c.
Cabin and the Parlor; or Slaves and Masters. By J. Thornton Randolph. 50.